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ABSTRACT

Information on Asian primary education is presented for enrollment, teaching staff, and financial factors for Asia in general and for the following countries in particular: Afghanistan, India, Indonesia, Iran, Japan, Khmer Republic, Laos, Malaysia, Pakistan, the Philippines, Singapore, Sri Lanka, and Thailand. Primary education reform in the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics is treated in a separate section. Major problem areas are identifying and controlling the sources of wastage, development of suitable curricula, training of personnel for instruction at the first level of education in rural societies, and out-of-school education for youth. A bibliographical supplement is included. (PS)

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# of the Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia

Number 14
June 1973

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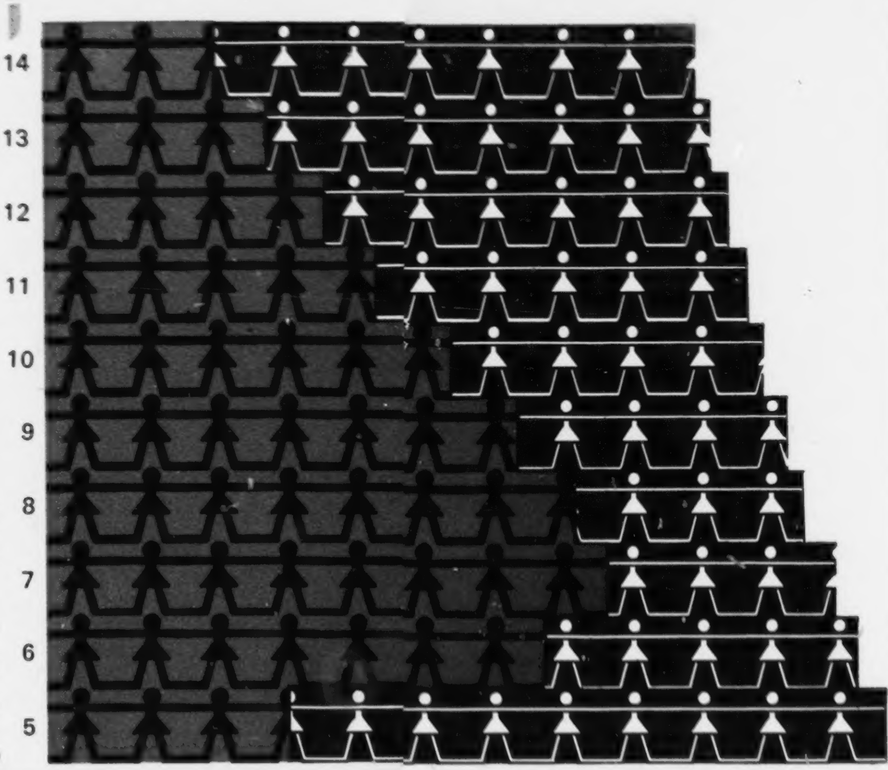

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First Level of Education in the Asian Region

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FIRST LEVEL OF EDUCATION IN THE ASIAN REGION - *an unfinished business*

The background

In most countries of Asia, the tradition of education goes back to the very beginnings of their history. It was bound up as an integral part of the great religious and moral systems which nursed the cultures and civilizations of the Asian continent such as Buddhism, Confucianism, Hinduism and Islam. The continuity of this tradition was interrupted, and even broken, by the economic and social forces released by emerging industrialization in Europe in the nineteenth century. While many countries of Asia were caught up in these forces and became colonial possessions, no country, colonial or free, remained unaffected by the pervasive changes set in motion by industrialization and its outward thrust.

The first introduction of Western influences in the Asian countries occurred at a time when two significant trends in education were emerging in Europe and America. The first centred on the State's responsibility for the education of the young. Increasingly, the concept was gaining

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"Region" refers to the area of service of the Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia, namely, Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Burma, People's Republic of China, India, Indonesia, Iran, Japan, Khmer Republic, Republic of Korea, Laos, Malaysia, Mongolia, Nepal, Pakistan, Philippines, Singapore, Republic of Sri Lanka, Thailand, Republic of Viet-Nam.

In this article, the data are those of the developing countries of the region. Furthermore, this article has not been able to include data for People's Republic of China for want of availability at the time this issue of the Bulletin goes for publication.

Education at the first level refers to education "of which the main function is to provide basic instruction in the tools of learning (e.g. at elementary school, primary school)" (*Recommendations concerning the international standardization of educational statistics adopted by the General Conference of Unesco at its tenth session*, Paris, 3 December 1958).

In the contributed articles to the present issue of the Bulletin, the terms "primary" or "elementary" education are used following the respective national usage.

ground that education of the young could not be left entirely to philanthropic action or religious fervour. The intervention of the State led gradually to the development of education "systems" in place of what were earlier congeries of educational institutions. It would appear that one of the reasons why Western educational influence made a quick impact to supplant the traditional indigenous forms of education, even in those Asian countries which were free of colonial rule, lay in the fact that education in the Western countries had developed into systems in which the State played a significant role.

The second trend in the nineteenth century Europe was mass education, embodied in the idea of compulsory primary education for all children in certain age-groups. It took a long time before the goal was achieved, but it became a powerful driving force. The traditional forms of education in Asia, though they presented many unique features, were not based on "mass education". The concept of "mass education" introduced a new social dimension and became a powerful factor in the implantation of the Western systems of education. The fact is not without significance that in countries which were colonial possessions, the implantation process was very much slowed down, while the countries which were free were quicker in adopting the imported patterns of education with their drive for mass education.

The period spanning the mid-nineteenth century to the mid-twentieth century witnessed new systems of education being installed, replacing, almost completely, the traditional ones in all countries of Asia. In all cases the systems were transplantation of one or the other of the metropolitan models. The strategies adopted in the process varied in different countries. In countries which were under colonial rule, the metropolitan authorities shaped and guided the educational policy (or non-policy), except during an initial phase of pioneering activities by Christian missionaries. At least three different policy approaches are discernible. In South Asian countries, the education system was developed from the top downward. Education at the first level was on a narrow base, just enough to support secondary education which in turn was geared to education in the universities. University education was the main focus in the allocation of resources and in policy emphasis, in the belief that the educational influence of the universities would "infiltrate" in a broadening stream into the general population. With the emphasis on higher education, foreign language became the medium of instruction not only in universities but also at the secondary and even at the first level of education. This pattern of development has had a profound influence in all subsequent developments in the countries of this area in making the first level of education no more than a passageway to higher education.

In the countries of Southeast Asia under colonial rule, education was developed on a highly restrictive basis and was dominated by the use of a foreign language as medium of instruction at all levels. It was not top heavy as in South Asia, because virtually no top was developed. Geographically, educational institutions were concentrated in certain localities, with hardly any educational facilities in outlying areas. One result of this policy, unforeseen undoubtedly, was that the indigenous traditional forms of education continued to play a role in society and were not as completely superseded as in some other parts of Asia.

The educational development in the Philippines during the colonial rule took a different path from those followed by developments of South Asia or Southeast Asia. Under the Spanish rule which lasted more than three and a half centuries, the majority of the population was converted to Christianity. To reach the people, popular education was emphasized, and as early as 1863, the Educational Code for the Philippines enacted by the Spanish Government set forth the goal of free and compulsory education for all children between the ages of seven and thirteen. It was however to be many generations before the realization of the goal came within reach. When the American rule superseded Spain, English became the medium of instruction, displacing Spanish. The United States declared quite early its intention to restore full independence to the colony within a few decades and gave strong support to the development of education at all levels, notably the first level of education.

The strategy of educational development evolved by Japan in the first phase of the modernization process initiated on the Meiji Restoration (1868) is in striking contrast to the course of development in other parts of Asia around this period. Educational reform and the development of a comprehensive modern education system was seen as one of the key measures in the transformation of Japan from a feudal to a modern national State. The State assumed a dominant role in designing and guiding the education system. In 1871 the Ministry of Education was established with overarching authority over all sectors of education. High priority was given to making primary education available universally. The Fundamental Code of Education of 1872 declared: " There shall, in the future, be no community with an illiterate family, or a family with an illiterate person". It was some years before this goal was achieved, but the priority to primary education held. The enrolment ratio which was only about 28 per cent in 1873 rose to 81 per cent by 1900 and 98.14 per cent by 1910. Admission to post-primary levels of education was highly selective, with the rigour of selection increasing at each higher level.

The watershed

The decade of the 1940s forms a watershed in the history of the countries of the region. The attainment of political independence by countries which were formerly under colonial rule and the drive for economic and social development released new forces and aspirations in the developing countries in Asia, as elsewhere. In the sphere of education, the pitifully limited development of education at the first level and the heavy incidence of illiteracy in the general population were reminders of the previous decades of neglect and stagnation. Consequently in all developing countries of Asia, the decade of the 1950s was marked by massive efforts by national authorities to expand their first level of education. The conditions of development and the pace,of course, varied widely among the countries, but the goal was common - expansion of enrolments. Undoubtedly some significant changes were made in the content and structure of education at the first level. For example, in all countries - with one exception - the national languages became media of instruction and in many countries the bifurcation of the system into rural and urban was abolished in an attempt to have a unified national system. But, by and large, expansion took place within the existing structures and framework.

The Karachi Plan and after

In 1959/60, representatives of Asian Member States met at Karachi and developed a long-term plan for the provision of universal and free primary education of at least seven years' duration, with 1980 as the target date.[1] The Karachi Plan was, on the one hand, a reflection of the trends already in evidence in the national policies. On the other hand, it was the first significant inter-country effort to articulate national trends into a regional framework.

An overall view of the progress of education at the first level in the decades following the Second World War would suggest that the main thrust of expansion spanned the period 1950-65 and a slowing down was discernible in the latter half of the 1960s. Currently there are emerging signs that in many countries of the region, education at the first level is beginning to receive renewed attention in national policies of educational reform.

In spite of the expansionary drive during the 1950s and the 1960s, universal education at the first level has not been achieved in the majority of countries in the region (The Karachi Plan had pointed out that universal education implies: (i) universal provision; (ii) universal enrolment; and (iii) universal retention. Even though universal education has yet to be achieved, the educational landscape in 1965 was substantially different from the one in the 1940s. Reviewing the position in

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[1] Unesco. *The needs of Asia in primary education: a plan for the provision of compulsory education in the region.* Paris, 1961. (Educational Studies and Documents, No. 41).

1965, the Asian Model[1] found that: (i) in seven countries which accounted for 14 per cent of the total population of the region[2], the first-level enrolment ratio had reached 89 per cent; (ii) in eight countries which accounted for 84 per cent of the total population, the enrolment ratio had reached 57 per cent; and (iii) in three countries which accounted for 3 per cent of the total population, the enrolment ratio was still as low as 18 per cent. Taking the region as a whole, it is countries (ii) and (iii) above which still have a major task ahead of them.

The educational structure: first level of education

In interpreting the aggregate data, it is necessary to bear in mind that the national education systems vary in their structure, and the levels and stages in which they are divided. Data relating to enrolment, enrolment ratios, etc., have to be seen in the context of these variations in the educational structure. Table 1 gives a tabular summary of the organization of compulsory education and first-level education in countries of the region.

The entrance age to formal schooling varies from 5 to 8, but the common age at which children are accepted is six years (nine countries), followed by age 5 and age 7 (four countries each). The duration of first-level education also varies, ranging from 4 to 7 years, but the most common duration is 6 years (eight countries), followed by 5 years (eight countries). It should be stressed, however, that the age of entry is somewhat of a formalistic notion; in actual practice, a significant proportion of children join school beyond, or sometimes before, attaining the legal school age. Late entry and repetition of grades make for a wide age-spread in each grade.

In six countries, as indicated in Table 1, first-level education is sub-divided into two stages: lower and upper primary. In these countries primary schools are organized to provide education at either the lower stage, or the upper stage, or both. Generally the schools in rural areas have only the lower stage, and enrolments therefore tend to decline between the lower and upper stages of primary education.

The Karachi Plan envisaged primary education of at least seven years' duration. The developments in the countries have not conformed

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[1] *"An Asian model of Educational Development: perspectives for 1965-80"* was considered and approved by the Second Regional Conference of Ministers of Education and Those Responsible for Economic Planning in Asian Member States, which met at Bangkok (November 1965) at the invitation of Unesco.

[2] The data did not include the People's Republic of China.

Table 1. System of education at the first level in the Asian region

Country	Compulsory education[1]		First level		
	Age limits	Duration (years)	Entrance age	Duration (years) Total	Sub-divisions
Afghanistan	7 - 13	6	7	6	3 - 3
Bangladesh	—	—	5	5	—
Burma	—	—	5	5	—
India[2]	6 - 14	5,7,8	6	5,7,8	—
Indonesia	8 - 14	6	7	6	—
Iran[3]	6 - 12	6	6	5	—
Khmer Republic	6 - 12	6	6	6	3 - 3
Korea, Rep. of	6 - 12	6	6	6	—
Laos	6 - 9	3	6	6	3 - 3
Malaysia	—	—	6	6	—
Mongolia[4]	8 - 15	7	8	4	—
Nepal[5]	6 - 11	5	6	5	—
Pakistan	—	—	5	5	—
Philippines	7 - 13	6	7	6	4 - 2
Singapore	—	—	6	6	—
Sri Lanka[6]	6 - 14	8	6	5	—
Thailand	7 - 14	7	7	7	4 - 3
Viet-Nam, Rep. of	7 - 14	5	6	5	3 - 2

1. Source: *Unesco Statistical Year book*, 1971.

2. The patterns differ from State to State, but the most common are eight years' basic schooling divided into five years of primary and 3 years of middle school.

3. The structure of education is in the process of reorganization since 1966 and the primary level is now of five years' duration followed by a three-year guidance cycle. Formerly the primary level was six years.

4. "Complete" primary school is of eight years' duration while "incomplete" primary school is four years.

5. A new system is being progressively introduced since 1971: 3 years of primary, followed by 4 years of middle school and three years of secondary.

6. A new system was adopted in 1972, raising the entrance age to six years and dividing general education into three stages: 5 years of primary, 4 years of junior secondary, and 3 years of senior secondary.

to the pattern. Countries such as Malaysia and Korea which have achieved a high level of enrolment ratio and a high level of retention ratio are moving towards merging the primary and lower secondary stages into a unified first-level education of nine years' duration.

In Burma primary education was extended by one year to the present duration of five years. Indonesia is currently experimenting with a new pattern, by shortening primary education to five years (instead of six), and introducing at the same time basic schooling of eight years' duration. Iran has since 1967 changed over from a 6-3-3 pattern to one of 5+3+4. First-level education in the new system consists of two cycles, elementary education of five years followed by a "guidance cycle" of three years. Nepal has adopted a new system and is introducing it gradually since 1971, changing over from a 5-3-2 pattern to one of 3-4-3. In Sir Lanka, following the reorganization of education in 1972, the duration of first-level education has been shortened to five years, to be followed by four years of a unified junior secondary stage.

Though the reorganized patterns are different in different countries, a common direction of reform in most of them is towards a greater articulation between the primary level and the lower stage of secondary, thus providing the foundation for the evolution of unified first-level education.

Compulsory education laws have been enacted in most countries, but legal compulsion as a means of enrolling children has either not been used or not found necessary. Generally the compulsory laws are made applicable in areas which have been provided adequate educational facilities. The enrolments have however grown much faster than the rate at which educational facilities are created. In other cases, the implementation of compulsory education laws has not been vigorous enough to achieve the desired results, for example in the fast growing urban areas with their chanty town fringes.

Expansion of enrolment

The rapid expansion of first-level education which began in the 1950s continued into the 1960s. Between 1960 and 1970, primary enrolments in the region increased by 69 per cent, from 69.7 million in 1960 to 117.7 million in 1970. On an average, over 4.8 million additional pupils were enrolled each year. In the previous decade, 1950-1960, though the relative enrolment increase was even higher (71%), the numbers added each year were lower: about 2.9 million.

Table 2 relates first-level enrolment to the population in the age-group 5 to 14 years. Although population increased significantly, the growth rate of enrolments was twice as fast, and the enrolment ratio improved considerably over the period.

Table 2. Progress in primary enrolment, the region, 1960-70

Year	Population (5-14) (in millions)	Primary enrolment (in millions)	Average annual rate of increase (%)		Enrolment ratio (%)
			Population	Enrolment	
1960	207.5	69.7	3.1	6.6	33
1965	242.1	96.1	2.4	4.1	40
1970	273.3	117.7			43

The annual growth of primary enrolments slackened markedly during the second quinquennium of the 1960s. The average annual rates of increase in enrolment for successive quinquennia since 1950 are shown in Table 3.

Table 3. Average annual increase in first-level enrolment, the region, 1950-70

Period	Average increase : Annual rate (%)	Average increase : Number per year (millions)
1950-55	4.8	2.16
1955-60	6.3	3.64
1960-65	6.6	5.28
1965-70	4.1	4.32

The progress of first-level education in the individual countries of the region is presented in Table A, in the Appendix. A reference to this table will show the wide differences in the pace of development of first-level education. Some countries maintained a very high growth rate throughout the decade of the 60s, e.g. Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Khmer Republic, and Pakistan. In some others, e.g. India, Indonesia, Thailand, there is a marked slowing down in the latter half of the decade. Indeed in some countries the growth rate in certain years fell below the rate of population increase. Certain countries which show a relatively slower rate of enrolment increase have already achieved, or are near to achieving, universal primary education, e.g. Republic of Korea, Malaysia, Philippines, and Singapore. In these countries further enrolment increases at the first level are mostly determined by the demographic growth. Noteworthy is the case of Singapore, where enrolment decreased during the period 1968 to 1972, reflecting recent demographic trends and also a reduction of the proportion of over-age pupils.

There were also, it will be observed from Table A, wide variations in the annual enrolment growth rates in the majority of countries. The data for a few countries are reproduced in Table 4 by way of illustration.

Table 4. Average annual rate of increase in first-level enrolment (%)

Period	Burma	India	Indonesia	Iran	Laos	Nepal	Thailand
1960-65	7.8	7.6	4.4	12.1	10.1	20.8	3.3
1965-66	16.6	1.7		3.3	10.7	2.2	3.7
1966-67	6.4	1.8	1.9	8.1	10.9	12.0	3.8
1967-68	2.3	3.7	3.1	7.1	4.2	1.5	2.8
1968-69	5.5	3.3	5.3	6.3	5.4	0.1	5.1
1969-70	...	4.1	4.6	5.5	13.1	...	3.7
1970-71	...	2.0	1.0	...	8.3	...	1.3

Even allowing for deficiencies in the way educational statistics are compiled and classified in the countries, the irregularities in the annual growth rates are too marked to avoid the suggestion of a general weakness in the annual planning and programming procedures.

The enrolment ratios in Table A refer to the proportion of total first-level enrolment to the population in the age-group corresponding to the level. But the enrolled population does not represent the specific age-groups: children below or above the age-range also enrol. This lack of correspondence is mainly caused by late entry, repetition of grades and re-entry. While the proportion of under-age pupils is generally small, the proportion of over-age pupils is quite substantial in most countries. For a number of countries, the distribution of enrolment by age is available, and over-age pupils represent the percentages shown in Table 5. For the purpose of this table, school age is the "legal" entry age to Grade I and the duration of first-level education.

Table 5. Percentage of over-age pupils in first-level enrolment, selected countries

Afghanistan (sample survey), 1968	21.0 % - 13 years and over
Burma, 1969	33.7 % - 10 " "
Bangladesh, 1969	6.2 % - 10 " "
India, 1966	13.2 % - 11 " "
Iran, 1967	18.2 % - 12 " "
Khmer Republic, 1963	22.4 % - 12 " "
Korea, Republic of, 1970	8.7 % - 12 " "
Malaysia (West), 1967	0.0 % - 12 " "
Pakistan, 1968	12.7 % - 10 " "
Philippines, 1968	10.6 % - 13 " "
Singapore, 1970	10.7 % - 12 " "
Sri Lanka, 1968	32.4 % - 10 " "
Thailand, 1968	1.7 % - 14 " "
Viet-Nam, Republic of, 1969	15.4 % - 11 " "

The above figures must be interpreted with great caution because of the lack of precise information regarding the reference date fixed for the reporting of age data. For example, in Sri Lanka the school year begins in January, but the school census refers to September. If the age of pupils is reported as of September instead of as of January, the effect would be that pupils will be nine months older than when they enrolled. There are other complications too, for example, the "legal" entry age to Grade I may differ for regions within the same country, e. g. India. Nevertheless, the conclusion holds that the enrolment figures include a substantial proportion of over-age children. Enrolment ratios adjusted for over-age pupils are shown in Table 6, for selected countries.

Table 6. First-level enrolment ratios (ER), selected countries

Country	Year	ER (all pupils) (%)	ER adjusted for over-age pupils (%)
Afghanistan	1970	22	17
Bangladesh	1969	56	53
Burma	1969	85	56
India	1970	82	71
Iran	1970	71	58
Korea, Rep. of	1970	104	95
Malaysia (West)	1970	91	91
Pakistan	1969	48	40
Philippines	1969	109	98
Singapore	1970	105	93
Sri Lanka	1970	101	69
Thailand	1970	81	79

It is clear that the non-enrolment gap in the specific age-groups corresponding to first-level education is significantly wider than is usually estimated by the "crude" enrolment ratio. The wide differences in the ages of children in a classroom have important implications both for methods of instruction and the way pupils' progression through the grades is determined. The lock-step method would be least likely to help in dealing with the problem.

In developed countries where compulsory education is well established, it is possible to foresee, within certain range, the correspondence between the age of a child and his or her grade placement. In countries with a developing education system, children in the age-group 5-14 have a different pattern of distribution. Table 7 sets out by age the enrolment at the primary and secondary levels.[1]

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[1] The design on the cover of the present issue of the *Bulletin* portrays the distribution graphically.

The population data by age correspond to the 1968 projections prepared by the United Nations Population Division. The age distribution of children enrolled was estimated on the basis of data available for fifteen of the eighteen countries concerned. The "pyramid" gives a picture of the age distribution of total school enrolment in the region over the age-range 5 to 14 years. However, a small number of children enrolled in kindergarten and special schools, and children in certain type of religious schools, e. g. Madrasah schools, are not included in these estimates.

Table 7. Population and enrolment by single years of age, in the age-range 5-14 years, the region, 1970 (estimated)

Age	Population	Enrolment (000's)			Percentage enrolled		
(years)	(000's)	1st level	2nd level	Total	1st level	2nd level	Total
5	31 486	9 407	-	9 407	29.9	-	29.9
6	30 209	18 601	-	18 601	61.6	-	61.6
7	29 109	20 767	-	20 767	71.3	-	71.3
8	28 161	19 767	-	19 767	70.2	-	70.2
9	27 341	17 083	347	17 430	62.5	1.3	63.8
10	26 633	13 562	1 621	15 183	50.9	6.1	57.0
11	26 017	9 242	3 064	12 306	35.5	11.8	47.3
12	25 419	5 403	4 723	10 126	21.3	18.5	39.8
13	24 790	2 720	5 575	8 295	11.1	22.4	33.5
14	24 138	1 177	5 558	6 735	4.9	23.0	27.9

Sources of data:

i) Population: Population Division, United Nations (1968 Projections).

ii) Enrolment : Estimates prepared by the Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia.

Beginning from age 5, the proportion of children enrolled (29.9%) increases to attain the maximum values at age 7 (71.3 %) and age 8 (70.2 %). Thereafter, the proportion enrolled decreases quite rapidly. By age 10, only little more than one-half (57.0 %) of the population at this age is enrolled, and by age 14, just over one-quarter (27.9 %) remains in school.

In interpreting the "pyramid", it should be borne in mind that it represents an aggregate of national school systems which differ in the duration of schooling and entrance age. Nevertheless, since formal schooling at age 8 is common to all countries in the region, the proportion of 8-year olds enrolled provides a good indication of the total capacity of the school system. It would appear that about 70 out of every hundred children enrol in school for at least one year. Of the remaining 30 children, who are not in school, a certain proportion might have been enrolled when they were younger, or might enrol in the future, or never go to school.

An important feature of the "pyramid" is the large number of children out of school. An estimated 135 million children in the age-group 5 to 14 are out of school (almost as many children as are enrolled, i.e. 139 million). They fall broadly in three main groups: (i) those who have completed first-level education and do not proceed to the next higher grade; (ii) those who have been to school but dropped out before completing the first level; and (iii) those who never attended school. The estimation of the proportion in each group for the region as a whole is not possible, but this information for the individual countries is of special importance. Programmes which are designed to expand educational opportunities for children must take into account the special needs of children out of school, notably in the age-group 10-14 years. In the regional aggregate, out of 24.1 million children aged 14, 6.7 million are enrolled and 17.4 million are out of school. Whatever the group they belong to, i.e. primary school leavers, drop-outs, illiterates, an important issue for the educational policy is how they can be better prepared for the world of work which they will enter. Programmes for children out of school should have a critically important place in any comprehensive educational policy.

The age-specific enrolment ratios for first-level education for individual countries are presented in Table B in the Appendix and graphically in Chart I. These ratios are presented by single years of age over the age-range 5 to 14, though children 15 years old and over are also found to be enrolled in primary classes in some of the countries. Beginning at the age of 9 years, children transfer from the primary level to the secondary level depending on the school entrance age and duration of schooling in the countries concerned. Therefore, in order to give a more complete picture of enrolment, Table B includes also information on children in the age-group 5-14 enrolled in secondary classes.

The pattern distribution (Chart I) is more or less similar in all countries. The maximum value is achieved one or two years after the legal school entrance age. As is to be expected, countries which have achieved universal primary education show high ratios throughout the primary age-range, while other countries have low ratios at entrance age, rising to a maximum after two or three years and then falling again quickly due to wide-spread dropping out on the one hand, and restrictive admission to second-level education on the other.

The expansion of enrolment of recent years, when analysed by grades, shows a consistent higher rate of increase in favour of the upper grades. For example, between 1960 and 1965, for the region as a whole, enrolment in Grade VI increased by 46.0 per cent, while it increased only 30.6 per cent at Grade I. As a result of larger increases in the upper grades, the grade enrolment pyramid shows some improvement but not enough to substantially reduce the heavy concentration at the base. Nearly 70 per cent of first-level enrolments is in the first three grades. The enrolment figures relating to the region as a whole are presented by grade in Table 8.

Table 8. Enrolment by grade in the first six grades of general education (primary or secondary classes), the region, 1960 and 1965

Grades		1960		1965		Per cent increase 1960-65
		Number (in million)	%	Number (in million)	%	
	I	25.15	33.2	32.83	31.6	30.6
	II	15.17	20.1	20.61	19.9	35.8
	III	12.26	16.2	17.08	16.5	39.3
Sub-Total	I-III	52.58	69.5	70.52	68.0	34.1
	IV	9.93	13.1	14.06	13.5	41.6
	V	9.40	9.8	10.75	10.4	45.2
	VI	5.73	7.6	8.37	8.1	46.0
Sub-Total	IV-VI	23.06	30.5	33.17	32.0	43.9
Total	I-VI	75.63	100.0	103.70	100.0	37.1

The grade enrolment pyramids for the individual countries are presented graphically in Chart II, which also shows changes in the enrolment distribution during the 10-year period 1960 to 1970. Although these are cross-sectional rather than longitudinal data, they reflect the current and recent trends in the rates of repetition and dropping out. In Chart II, three types of distribution pattern are easily discernible: (a) the nearly rectangular "pyramid", for example, Republic of Korea, Malaysia, Mongolia; (b) the intermediate or triangular "pyramid" which shows a progressive but not a very steep loss of enrolment between successive grades, e.g. Indonesia, Iran, Philippines; and (c) the "pyramid" which is very broad at the base due to the heavy concentration of enrolment in Grade II and tapering upward sharply. Certain deviations from the patterns are observed in some of the countries. In the Khmer Republic, the enrolments in the lower grades increased faster than those in the upper grades because of the efforts made during this period to extend school facilities at the lower grades throughout the country. The concentration of enrolments in Grade VI in Singapore results from the inclusion of repeaters. In Thailand, the duration of first-level education was extended from four to seven years in 1962, but, there is still a large number of primary schools which only offer up to Grade IV. This explains the big drop observed between Grades IV and V. For Sri Lanka, only 1969 data are given in Chart III: Grade I A was abolished beginning 1966 and therefore the grade enrolment distribution at the beginning and end of the 1960s cannot be compared. Changes in the education system will probably explain too, the small deviations from the expected pattern observed in the data for Iran and Malaysia.

The pattern of enrolment distribution by grade has important implications for the methods of school organization as well as the way in which the teaching resources are deployed. The traditional procedure which allocates more teaching resources in the higher grades would appear to have little relevance to a situation where the learning needs are quantitatively more in the lower grades. Insufficient input of teaching resources, qualitative and quantitative, in the lower grades is a contributing factor in educational wastage.

Enrolment of girls

The achievement of an adequate level of educational facilities in the Asian region is contingent on correcting the existing imbalance in the enrolment ratios for boys and girls. In the region as a whole, the enrolment ratio for boys in 1970 was estimated at 50 per cent, compared to 35 per cent for girls. Efforts have been made in every country to expand education of girls, and significant progress has been achieved in narrowing the existing gap in the provision of educational facilities for boys and girls, as shown in Table 9.

Table 9. Enrolment of the first level of education as percentage of population 5-14, by sex, the region

Year	Boys	Girls
1960	42	25
1965	48	32
1970	50	35

The proportion of girls in total first-level enrolment which was estimated at 37 per cent in 1960 in the regional aggregate rose to 39 per cent in 1965 and 40 per cent in 1970. The data are presented in Table A (Appendix) for individual countries. There has been a steady progress in every country since 1960, but considerable differences still exist. It will be seen from Table A that equality in enrolment of boys and girls has been attained in eight countries, i.e. Burma, Republic of Korea, Malaysia, Mongolia, Philippines, Singapore, Sri Lanka, Thailand, while in other two countries (Indonesia and Republic of Viet-Nam) the proportion of girls is around 45 per cent. However, there is still a significant imbalance in the girls' enrolment in eight countries where the proportion is only about 40 per cent or lower. In these countries the main problem lies in the rural areas, where the enrolment of girls lags behind the boys' enrolment by as much as 15-35 per cent. The size of the girls' enrolment in these countries is further eroded by the incidence of drop-out, the rate of which is higher among girls, particularly in the beginning grades of first-level education.

Educational wastage

Wastage in education in the form of repetition of grades and dropping out or premature school-leaving continues to be the most important problem of educational development at the first level of education in many Asian countries. The magnitude of educational wastage is known and the seriousness of its repercussions in human, social and economic terms are well recognized. The education systems seem, however, to be unable to act decisively to control the problem and are caught in a conflict between aspirations towards increasing educational facilities and the need to make the system of first-level education more effective. Wastage tends to widen the existing disparities in the distribution of educational facilities between boys and girls, urban and rural populations, and among different regions or socio-economic groups within a country.

The country articles in the present issue of the Bulletin, as well as other recent official reports[1], highlight the gravity of the problem.

On the regional aggregate, it is estimated that out of 24.5 million children enrolled in Grade I in 1960, approximately 9.8 million (40 per cent) reached Grade V. These figures are based on an analysis of successive year-grade data (Table 10). An important limitation, however, must be noted. This method fails to distinguish between the two components of wastage - repetition and drop-outs, and leads to an under-estimation of the retention ratio and over-estimation of the dropout rate.

In order to take remedial measures at the national level, it is necessary that the essential data on wastage should be systematically collected and analysed. Unfortunately this is not being done at present in most of the countries. The minimum essential data should include data on the distribution of pupils by grades, differentiating new pupils and repeaters.

In connexion with a survey conducted by Unesco in 1969, only six countries in the region were in a position to provide repetition data, although repetition is an important element in wastage and has to be taken

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[1] Published in *Education in Asia. Bulletin of the Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia,* Vol. VI, No. 2, March 1972.

Table 10. Retention ratios in the first seven grades of school education, the region

Grade - Year	Enrolment (thousands)	Retention ratios (%)	
		From Grade I	Grade to grade
Grade I - 1960	24 519	100.0	.
Grade II - 1961	15 953	65.1	65.1
Grade III - 1962	13 557	55.3	85.0
Grade IV - 1963	11 790	48.1	87.0
Grade V - 1964	9 836	40.1	83.4
Grade VI - 1965	8 388	34.2	85.3
Grade VII - 1966	6 279	25.6	74.9

Note: The dotted line after Grade V is to indicate that in some countries Grade VI is part of secondary education, while Grade VII is part of secondary in most of the countries. The above calculation is based on the enrolment in the first seven grades of general education regardless of the school level.

into account for remedial action. The national figures have to be disaggregated and analysed by grades, sex, ethnic groups, geographic region, age, size of school, etc. Ultimately, the analysis and action must be carried out at the school level. After all, the many thousands of children who repeat or drop out at the national level is the cumulative total of the few children who repeat and drop out from each of the thousands of individual schools throughout the country, and from each of the grades, and from each of the classes. An effective programme of action to reduce or eliminate wastage has to be built up from the base in individual schools upward.

The causes of educational wastage are social, economic and also educational. Educational measures alone may not be able to eliminate wastage, but they can, if effectively implemented, reduce it substantially and within a relatively short period (as shown in the experience of countries such as Korea and Malaysia). [1]

Transition from the first to the second level of education

The transition ratio indicates the proportion of pupils proceeding from the first to the second level. The transition ratios are determined by a variety of factors (the selection procedures, availability of schooling facilities, social demand for education, etc.) and must be interpreted bearing certain considerations in mind, notably the enrolment ratios and wastage rates. A high transition ratio in a country which has achieved a high enrolment ratio and low wastage rate would generally indicate an expanding impetus in the education system. On the other hand, a high transition ratio in a country with a low enrolment ratio (or relatively higher enrolment ratio with high wastage rate, which is in effect tantamount to low enrolment ratio) would indicate a highly selective education system.

Data on the number of pupils successfully completing first-level education are not generally available. In the absence of such data, it is possible only to compare, for several countries for which enrolments by grades are available, the enrolment in the terminal grade of first-level education (in year t) with enrolment in the beginning grade of secondary education (in year t+1). The limitations of these inter-grade ratios are obvious : not all pupils in the terminal grade pass the primary course successfully while the enrolment in the next higher grade would also include repeaters. To a substantial extent these two factors tend to cancel each other and inter-grade ratios whould approximate transition ratios.

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[1] The problem of educational wastage at the first-level of education in Asia has been discussed in detail in "The Problems of Educational Wastage", *Bulletin of the Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia*, Volume I, No. 2, March 1967 (out-of-print). It was also the theme of the XXXIInd session of the International Conference on Education (Geneva, 1-9 July 1970). The main working document for this Conference: *The Reduction of Educational Wastage* (ED/BIE/CONFINED 32/4), Paris, March 1970, and the reference document: *The Statistical Measurement of Educational Wastage* (ED/BIE/CONFINTED 32/Ref. 1), Paris, 24 June 1970, present a comprehensive analysis of the existing situation from the twofold aspect of the numerical incidence of wastage and the various methods of selection and promotion, followed by a study of the principal socio-economic and educational causes, and suggestions as to possible remedies.

As a follow-up to the Conference, two recent studies have been published by Unesco-IBE in the series "Studies and surveys in comparative education":

i) *Wastage in education: a world problem*, prepared by M.A. Brimer and L. Pauli, Paris-Geneva, 1971, 155 p.

ii) *A statistical study of wastage at school*, prepared by the Unesco Office of Statistics, Paris-Geneva, 1972, 121 p.

The data on transition ratios for individual countries are presented in Table C, in the Appendix. These data are also shown graphically in Charts III A, III B, III C and III D. To assist interpretation of the transition ratio, countries are shown in these four Charts grouped according to the enrolment ratio and the retention ratio. A reference to these Charts will show a general rising trend in the proportion of children proceeding from the first to the second level. As it has been pointed out, in several countries the observed trend results from the gradual implementation of a Government decision to extend the period of basic schooling to eight or nine years.

Chart III A shows the transition ratios for four countries, namely : Republic of Korea, Malaysia (West), Mongolia and Singapore. These countries have achieved (or are near to achieving) universal primary enrolment and universal retention. The Republic of Korea and Malaysia aim at providing nine years of schooling for all. Korea abolished the secondary school entrance examination in 1968 and Malaysia in 1965. Both countries have a system of automatic promotion throughout primary and lower secondary grades and provide open access to the lower secondary level to all primary school leavers who want it.

The rising trend of the transition ratio in these countries, particularly since the secondary entrance examination was abolished, is clearly marked. In Mongolia, four-year compulsory education was achieved in 1957, and the Government made the decision to extend compulsory education to seven years. The rising trend of the transition ratio reflects the successive implementation of the extended period of compulsory education throughout the country. In Singapore, at the end of the sixth year, pupils sit for the Primary School Leaving Examination, for selection for secondary education. All pupils who pass this examination are admitted to secondary schools.

Chart III B shows the transition ratios for three countries : Philippines, Sri Lanka and Republic of Viet-Nam. These countries have achieved universal enrolment, but wastage ratios (repetition and drop-outs) are relatively high. Although these countries also show a high and rising transition ratio, their system is selective due to high wastage. While in the Republic of Viet-Nam admission to second-level education is based on a competitive examination, in the Philippines and Sri Lanka there is no formal mechanism and practically all primary pupils who want to continue have the opportunity to do so. In Sri Lanka, the procedure for promotion to junior secondary (Grades VI-VIII) is flexible and the individual school has freedom to regulate promotions. The Republic of Viet-Nam is currently considering abolishing the entrance examination to Grade VI and the extension of compulsory education by two years to up to Grade VIII.

Chart III C shows the transition ratios for India, Iran, Khmer Republic and Thailand. These countries have achieved first-level enrolment ratios in the intermediate range and wastage rate tends to be high. Second-level education is therefore selective even if transition ratios are high, e.g. India, Iran and Thailand. In the Khmer Republic the transition ratio increased over the period but is lower than in the other countries shown in the Chart. In India the procedure for promotion to secondary grades varies between states, but in many states there is a public examination at the end of the primary stage for maintaining a uniform standard. Universal primary education up to Grade V is envisaged by 1975/76, and up to Grade VIII by 1980/81. In Iran and Thailand admission to secondary school is determined by an entrance examination.

Chart III D shows transition ratios for five countries which have low enrolment ratios and high wastage rates. In these countries secondary education becomes in fact highly selective. Admission to secondary education is in general regulated by examinations set at the end of primary or for admission in secondary. The transition ratios in those countries do not show a rising trend.

Teaching staff at the first level of education

The expansion of first-level enrolment has called for a sharp increase in the teaching force. In the period 1960-70 the number of primary teachers in the region as a whole rose from 1.8 million in 1960 to 2.9 million in 1970 (an average addition of nearly 110 thousand teachers every year). In spite of an increase of this magnitude, the supply of teachers has not kept pace with the enrolment expansion. The pupil-teacher ratio for the region rose from 38:1 in 1960 to 40:1 in 1970. Aggregate data on the expansion of the teaching force in the region are presented in Table 11.

Table 11. Expansion of the teaching force, at the first level of education, the region, 1960-70

Year	Total number of teachers (000's)	Female teachers (000's)	Percentage female	Pupil-teacher ratio
1960	1 819	480	26	38:1
1965	2 343	696	30	41:1
1970	2 910	951	33	40:1

The present pupil-teacher ratio in the Asian region (40:1) is significantly higher than the ratio (35:1) adopted for the Karachi Plan projections. Moreover, the Karachi Plan projections assumed that a decrease would occur in the pupil-teacher ratio, while present estimates show that the trend is in the opposite direction.

Table 12. Pupil-teacher ratios at the first level of education around 1960, 1965 and latest year available

Country	Year	Average number of pupils per teacher	Country	Year	Average number of pupils per teacher
Afghanistan	1962	56	Malaysia (West)	1960	29
	1965	54		1965	28
	1970	41		1972	32
Bangladesh[1]	1960	42	Mongolia	1961	32
	1965	44		1965	32
	1967	47		1969	32
Burma	1960	40	Nepal	1960	33
	1965	53		1965	29
	1969	46		1969	25
India	1960	* 37	Pakistan[1]	1960	34
	1965	* 42		1965	35
	1970	* 42		1967	37
Indonesia	1960	39	Philippines	1960	36
	1965	42		1965	31
	1971	32		1969	29
Iran[2]	1960	34	Singapore	1960	32
	1965	36		1965	29
	1970	33		1971	31
Khmer Rep.	1965	48	Sri Lanka[3]	1960	31
	1968	48		1965	28
				1967	26
Korea, Rep. of	1960	58			
	1965	62	Thailand	1960	36
	1971	56		1965	34
				1969	33
Laos	1965	32			
	1970	35	Viet-Nam, Rep. of	1960	53
				1965	56
				1970	52

* Estimated.

1. Excluding primary classes attached to schools at other levels.
2. Public education only; excluding Education Corps Schools.
3. Including second level of education.

The pupil-teacher ratios for individual countries of the region are presented in Table 12, for the years 1960, 1965 and the latest year available. There are wide variations: in ten countries, the present average number of pupils per teacher is 35 or less, while in five countries it is of 45 or more.

Pupil-teacher ratios in aggregate terms conceal considerable variations by size of school, urban/rural areas, public/private schools, geographical divisions, etc. Such variations point to the disparities in the distribution of education in various parts of a country, a problem which is receiving increasing attention from national authorities. Data available for a few selected countries are reproduced below to illustrate the wide range of variations in the supply of teachers which is prevalent in most countries of the region.

a) India. Percentage distribution of primary schools (sections) according to pupil-teacher ratio, urban and rural areas, 1965

Pupil-teacher ratio	Rural areas	Urban areas
Up to 30	28.54	26.27
31 to 40	30.32	38.77
41 to 50	20.09	20.18
51 to 60	10.41	7.93
More than 60	10.64	6.85
Total: Percentage	100.00	100.00
Number	410,571	44,614

Source: India. National Council of Educational Research and Training. *Second All-India educational survey*, August 1967. pp. 144-145.

b) One-teacher schools by size of enrolments in India and Indonesia

India, 1965[1]		Indonesia, 1971[2]	
Number of pupils	Number of schools (Rural areas only)	Number of pupils	Number of schools
Up to 20	16 529	Up to 50	665
21 to 40	81 662	51 to 100	799
41 to 60	46 833	101 to 150	202
61 to 80	14 363	More than 150	72
81 to 100	4 721	Total	1 738
More than 100	3 274		
Total	167 382		

Sources: 1. India. National Council of Educational Research and Training. *Second All-India educational survey*, August 1967. pp. 144-145.

2. Indonesia. Ministry of Education. Bank Data, *Statistics of Primary Schools:* 31 March 1971, Table 12.

c) Average size of primary classes in Indonesia
and Republic of Korea

Indonesia, 1971[1]			Korea, 1971[2]	
Grade	Pupils per class		Pupils per class	Number of classes
	Urban areas	Rural areas		
I	39	34	Up to 20	421
II	38	31	21 to 30	1 074
III	37	30	31 to 40	3 635
IV	36	26	41 to 50	14 371
V	34	22	51 to 60	25 887
VI	29	17	61 to 70	23 718
			71 to 80	17 208
All grades	36	28	More than 80	8 349
			Total	94 663

Sources: 1. Indonesia. Ministry of Education. Bank Data. *Statistics of Primary Schools:* 31 March 1971, Table 12.

2. Republic of Korea. Ministry of Education. *Statistics Year Book of Education, 1971*, p. 144.

The historical experience of all countries which have attained and consolidated universal first-level education (for example Japan) is that during the phase of expansion pupil-teacher ratios have risen. This is borne out by data in Table 12. Pupil-teacher ratios are stabilized, or declining, in countries which have achieved, or are near achieving, universal provision of first-level education, for example, Republic of Korea, Malaysia, Mongolia, and Singapore. On the other hand, pupil-teacher ratios show a consistently rising trend in countries which are expanding enrolments (short-term deviations will be found to be correlated to annual variations).

A recent striking experience is that of the Republic of Korea. In a relatively brief period of two decades, Korea has been able to expand the enrolment ratio at first-level education from around 40 per cent to universality by raising the pupil-teacher ratio as high as 70:1.

The problem of large classes and high teacher-pupil ratios has important implications both for planning the distribution of teaching resources, the training of teachers and the use of media in education. This is an area that calls for urgent action research.

Female teachers

There was a significant increase in the percentage of women teachers at the first level of education during the period 1960-70. For the region as a whole, the percentage rose from 26 in 1960 to 33 in 1970. An increasing number of women teachers has a twofold significance : it ensures that the special problems of girls under schooling are handled by teachers who understand these problems, and secondly, it indicates in the developing countries an emerging employment orientation among women.

The proportion of female teachers at the first level varies widely from country to country. In four countries (Philippines, Singapore, Sri Lanka and the Republic of Viet-Nam) it is more than 65 per cent. In six countries it is between 30 and 50 per cent, while in the remaining eight countries it is below 30 per cent. In all countries, however, the increasing proportion of female teachers is a well established trend.

Qualifications of teachers

The qualification level of primary school teachers comprises two elements: a) qualifications relating to the basic preparation; and b) qualifications relating to professional training.

Some countries where first-level enrolment ratios are low, for example Afghanistan, Laos and Nepal, have an acute shortage of trained and qualified primary school teachers. In these countries the basic academic qualification of a large majority of teachers is less than full secondary education. In Afghanistan, the proportion of primary school teachers with full secondary education was 19 per cent in 1967; it has been raised to 28 per cent by 1970.

In Laos, over 70 % of teachers in primary schools have less than 10 years of schooling. In Nepal, the proportion of trained primary teachers was 34 % in 1970, compared to 25 % in 1965. The minimum qualification for admission to the primary school teacher training courses is 8 years of schooling, followed by professional training of one year.

A common problem in these three countries is the low output of qualified teachers in relation to the size of their teaching force and its future expansion.

A second group of countries are those where the system of education is more developed, but where universal first-level enrolment has not yet been achieved. In these countries (for example: India, Indonesia, Iran, Pakistan), the second and third levels of education are already developed to a scale to ensure a steady supply of teachers. The problem relates essentially to up-grading the qualifications of teachers already in the teaching force who were recruited in the past with inadequate qualifications, and expanding the capacity of training establishments to meet the rising demand for new teachers. In most of these countries the minimum requirements for admission to teacher training schools have been raised during the period while in-service teacher training programmes provide the main avenue to clear some of the backlog of under-qualified and untrained teachers.

In India, the proportion of trained primary teachers rose from 64 % in 1960 to 83 % in 1970. However, a considerable number of the teachers (52 %) have basic qualifications of only middle school level or below. The minimum qualification for admission to a primary teacher training course is 10 or 11 years of schooling. Now all new teachers added to the teaching force are trained teachers with this basic schooling qualification.

In Iran, the proportion of trained primary school teachers rose from 34 % in 1966/67 to 56 % in 1970/71. The proportion of teachers (permanent, contract and temporary instructional staff) holding secondary school diplomas or university degrees is high: 75 % in 1966/67, which further increased to 80 % by 1970/71. Effective 1973, the minimum qualification for entrance to normal schools which provide a four-year teacher preparation programme is to be basic schooling of 8 years. Because of the shortage of women teachers, the training course for women will be two years. The duration of the Army of Knowledge teacher training course has been increased from four to six months, and the duration of their probationary teaching period has also been increased from 14 to 18 months, after which they may be appointed as primary school teachers. [1]

Finally, a third group of countries consists of those which have already achieved a high enrolment ratio at the first level of education. In most of these countries, all teachers are now trained and the qualification level of primary school teachers is rising. Data for four countries are presented below to illustrate the trends at work.

In the Republic of Korea, up to 1961, teachers for the first level of education were trained at high school level institutions known as normal schools. Since 1962, the normal schools have been upgraded to two-year teachers' colleges. The progressive up-grading of the teaching cadres at the first level of education is illustrated by the data in Table 13.

Table 13. Republic of Korea. Teaching staff in primary schools by educational attainment, 1964 and 1971

Years of education	Number of teachers		Percentage distribution	
	1964	1971	1964	1971
Up to 9	4 662	6 716	6.2	6.5
10 - 11	5 826	8 394	7.7	8.1
12	52 936	45 769	70.2	44.1
13	1 581	3 353	2.1	3.2
14	7 548	32 512	10.0	31.3
15 and more	2 902	7 012	3.8	6.8
All teachers	75 455	103 756	100.0	100.0

Source: Ministry of Education. *Annual Survey of Education, 1964* and *Statistics Year Book of Education, 1971.*

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[1] Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia, Bangkok, *Teacher Education in Asia. A regional survey, 1972.* p. 130.

The former Federation of Malaya under colonial rule did not have a fully developed teacher training system. Teachers were trained mostly in two training establishments located in the metropolitan country. On attaining independence, Malaysia set itself the task of creating a teacher training system, and ensuring an output adequate enough to meet the needs of rapidly expanding school enrolments.

Before 1956, the minimum admission requirement for teacher training for primary schools of Malay and Tamil media was only Grade V or VI. In 1956, the admission requirement was raised to LCE (9 years of schooling), and in 1968 it was further raised to MCE (11 years of schooling). A variety of training programmes were adopted: full-time courses; part-time courses: weekend/vacation courses and correspondence instruction. A common pattern of teacher training has now been established. Table 14 presents the data on the composition of the teaching force by training qualification and illustrates the variety of training programmes which were in operation till recently.

Table 14. Malaysia (West). Teaching staff in assisted primary schools by type of training, 1972

Type of training (institution)	Number of teachers
1. University degrees	33
2. Malayan Training College/ Normal trained	1 828
3. Language Institute trained	233
4. Regional Training Centre/ Secondary Continuation Schools, trained	123
5. Malay College trained	2 226
6. Senior Normal/ Specialist Institute/ Chinese Teachers College trained	3 173
7. Day Training Centre trained	19 071
8. Teachers of English in Vernacular Schools trained	819
9. Other schemes trained	9 789
10. Certificated	1 126
11. Others trained	2 821
12. Untrained (permanent)	1 985
Sub-total	43 227
13. Volunteers, student-teachers, probationers	269
14. Untrained (temporary)	3 133
Total all teachers	46 629

Source: Ministry of Education. EPRD. (mimeo).

In the Philippines, 95 % of teachers in public primary schools are "fully qualified", 4.4 % "partly qualified" and 0.5 %" not qualified". 98 % of the teachers are college graduates. Moreover, the level of qualifications increased significantly between 1961/62 and 1967/68. While in 1961/62 the majority of teachers were trained in two-year colleges, in 1967/68, the largest number of graduates came from four-year colleges. Table 15 presents the data to illustrate that changing the composition of the teaching force by qualification is not necessarily a slow process.

Table 15. Philippines. Primary school teachers by qualifications (public schools only), 1961/62 and 1967/68

Qualification	Number of teachers		Percentage distribution	
	1961/62	1967/68	1961/62	1967/68
1. Two-year college teacher curriculum graduate	69 301	46 531	57.4	23.3
2. Three-year college normal (combined curriculum)	2 704	4 412	2.2	2.2
3. Four-year college teacher curriculum graduate	41 647	142 793	34.5	71.4
4. Others (graduate)	1 088	2 042	0.9	1.0
5. Secondary teacher training	3 496	1 775	2.9	0.9
6. Secondary vocational	313	1 072	0.3	0.5
7. Secondary school (general)	2 090	1 152	1.7	0.6
8. Primary school	149	116	0.1	0.1
All teachers	120 788	199 893	100.0	100.0

Source: Bureau of Public Schools. *Statistical Bulletin*, 1962, and 1967-68.

In Thailand also the qualification level of teachers has improved considerably over recent years. For example, of primary teachers in public schools in 1964/65, 9.3 % held the Diploma in Education (14 years of basic education and training). This proportion grew to 22.4 % by 1970/71. The data in Table 16 show the progress achieved during this period in the various categories of training.

Table 16. Thailand. Teaching staff in public primary schools, 1964/65 and 1970/71 (percentages)

Qualification	1964/65	1970/71
Bachelor degree or higher	0.9	1.2
Diploma in Education (14 years)	9.3	22.4
Certificate in Education (12 years)	34.4	39.5
Pre-Primary Certificate or lower	27.8	17.0
Vocational Certificate	7.8	5.5
General Education only	19.8	14.4
All teachers: percentage number	100.0	100.0
	(104,576)	(139,266)

Source: National Statistical Office. Ministry of Education. *Final Report. School and Teacher Census, 1964* (abridged edition) and *Report on education statistics 1969-1970*.

Table 17 presents, for 12 countries for which data are available, data on expenditure on first-level education over the period 1960/70. The increases are in all cases significant and in some cases quite remarkable.

Comparing expenditures over a period of several years, however, is useful if price increases are taken into account. To make a rough assessment of the influence of price increases on educational expenditures, Table 17 A brings together the per pupil recurring expenditure and the consumer prices. Consumer price index has been chosen because this is the only index available for all Asian countries. It has however to be borne in mind that the consumer price index reflects only partially the movement of the cost of educational services. Taken over a long period of years, however, a comparison between expenditures per pupil and the consumer price index does provide some useful clues.

Table 17 shows that in all cases the rate of increase of educational expenditure has been ahead of the enrolment increase. Table 17 A shows however that a considerable part of the increase in per pupil expenditure is caused by increasing prices and not by a higher quality of the educational services offered. Only for 4 countries (Republic of Korea, Laos, Singapore and Thailand) the per pupil expenditure increased faster than prices. For other countries prices have increased faster than expenditure per pupil. The result of this is either lower salaries in real terms for the teachers or less educational materials and overcrowded school buildings.

Table 17. Increase in the public recurring expenditure and enrolment at the first level of education (including pre-school), 1960-1970

Country (and currency)	Year	Public recurring expenditure	Increase over period (%)	First-level enrolment, increase over period (%)
Afghanistan	1962	71 785 000	226	110
(Afghani)	1969	243 113 000		
Burma	1960	70 649 000	223	95
(Kyat)	1969	228 344 000		
India	1960	735 546 000	92	68
(Rupee)	1966	1 415 190 000		
Iran	1959	2 308 438 000	310	104
(Rial)	1969	9 474 686 000		
Khmer Rep.	1960	509 028 000	81	66
(Riel)	1967	923 376 000		
Korea, Rep. of	1961	4 746 073 000	743	45
(Won)	1969	39 999 813 000		
Laos	1960	167 951 000	577	112
(Kip)	1969	1 136 522 000		
Malaysia (West)	1961	113 516 000	84	25
(Dollar)	1969	209 331 000		
Mongolia	1965	124 384 000	40	32
(Tugrik)	1969	173 584 000		
Singapore	1961	44 311 000	109	23
(Dollar)	1969	92 762 000		
Thailand	1961	613 263 000	197	35
(Baht)	1969	1 822 128 000		
Viet-Nam, Rep. of	1961	390 712 000	790	78
(Piastre)	1969	3 476 462 000		

Source: *Unesco Statistical Yearbook 1971.*

Table 17 A. Development of per pupil recurring expenditure in first-level education, period 1960-1970 (selected countries)

Country	Period	Increase in per pupil recurring expenditure (%)	Increase in consumer prices (%)
Afghanistan	1960 - 1970	18	[1] 100
India	1961 - 1967	39	66
Indonesia	1961 - 1970	619	405 000
Iran	1962 - 1969	6	13
Korea, Rep. of	1962 - 1971	281	[2] 170
Laos	1963 - 1970	244	198
Malaysia (West)	1962 - 1969	6	7
Nepal	1963 - 1969	13	38
Philippines	1961 - 1967	23	39
Singapore	1960 - 1969	42	13
Sri Lanka	1960 - 1969	11	26
Thailand	1960 - 1970	92	23
Viet-Nam, Rep. of	1963 - 1972	352	725

1. Period 1961-1969
2. Period 1962-1969

Table 18 sets out data on the proportion of GNP that the total educational expenditures take and the share of first-level expenditure in the total educational expenditure.

Table 18. The financial effort for first-level education

Country	Year	Total educational expenditure in relation to GNP (%)	Expenditure for first-level education (including pre-school) in relation to total recurring educational expenditure
Burma	1967	2.9	[1] 79.0
India	1966	2.5	23.0
Iran	1968	3.3	51.5
Khmer Republic	1966	4.2	[2] 66.8
Korea, Rep. of	1969	3.8	66.2
Malaysia (West)	1969	5.3	46.4
Singapore	1968	[3] 3.7	48.9
Thailand	1969	3.4	61.6
Viet-Nam, Rep. of	1967	1.1	[1] 60.5

Source: *Unesco Statistical Yearbook 1971.*

1. 1968
2. 1967
3. As proportion of GDP at factor costs

In some countries the share of first-level education declined (Singapore, Malaysia (West), Laos); in others it increased (Republic of Korea, Republic of Viet-Nam, Mongolia, Afghanistan); and in the remaining countries the proportion was more or less constant over the last 10 years.

Another important indicator is the proportion of total expenditures for first-level education spent on teachers' salaries. Invariably, this proportion is very high. Not many countries have statistical information on this subject, but Table 19 brings together data for 4 countries.

Table 19. Expenditure on teachers' salaries in relation to total expenditure for first level of education

Country	Year	Teachers' salaries
India	1965	90 %
Khmer Republic	1967	97 %
Malaysia	1969	97 %
Thailand	1969	91 %

It is clear that the expenditure on personnel takes a very high proportion of the total expenditure, leaving only a small proportion for other facilities, such as teaching aids, materials, etc. Seen from the point of view of allocation of resources, the teacher is the single most important factor, and it is the optimization of his contribution to which any strategy of educational development at the first level must address itself.

Unlike second-level education and tertiary education which in many countries of Asia (though not in all) have a large "private schools" sector, first-level education is mostly financed from public revenues (the private sector in countries where it does exist is very small). Even in countries which have a unitary system of government, the trend has been to entrust the administration and, to a considerable extent, financing of first-level education to provincial / state / local authorities. In a federal system such as India has, first-level education is almost wholly financed by constituent state governments and local authorities. The revenue base of state or local authority being necessarily limited, educational expenditures soon begin to push against a restraining ceiling and the sheer constraints of budgetary revenues begin to impose limits to the growth and improvement of first-level education. These constraints show themselves markedly in countries where the financing of first-level education is geared to one revenue base only - central government or provincial government or a municipal / local body. An important task in most countries in the region is to mobilize additional resources and diversify the sources of support for the development of first-level education. A number of countries have in recent years made systematic efforts to involve the local community in supporting the local school both materially and in terms of real resources. Local bodies such as municipal/town councils have a contribution to make which is not always realized because of the uneven development of the local government system. Clearly, the development of first-level education has to be related more dynamically to local communities and community institutions. This would call for new patterns of administration, management and control in which the local community can play an active role.

Instructional programmes [1]

In almost all countries of the region, instructional programmes at the first level of education are based on the directives of the Ministry of Education or the educational authority of a state or local body, notably in regard to the basic organization of grades/classes, allotment of teaching staff, prescription of the subjects to be taught and courses of study. Generally, though not in all cases, the total.number of school days, the timing of vacations and the total instructional time to be allocated to each subject or instructional activity are also prescribed centrally. This leaves very little margin for flexible adaptations to local conditions - for example, in the rural areas timing the vacation periods with the cycle of agricultural operations.

The basic organization in the lower grades is the class teacher system except for special subjects such as religious education, practical arts, foreign language, etc. which may be taught by special subject teachers. There are generally no facilities available to deal with special problems such as slow learning or under-achievement, nor is the class teacher trained for dealing with such problems. The grade system is the most common form of school organization. In a few countries in recent years (for example India),experiments are under way, though on a limited scale, with an ungraded class system.

Reference was made in the earlier sections to the rising pupil-teacher ratios, the large classes and the wide range of differences in the chronological age of pupils in the lower grades which are the common characteristic of the expanding first-level education systems in the developing countries in Asia. The planned rigidities of the grade system and one teacher-one class principle, with lock-step progression from one grade to another, almost compel dropout and under-achievement. Here is, it would appear, another important but neglected area for action research and experimentation.

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[1] For the material for this section and all the tables in it, the Regional Office acknowledges special indebtedness to *"Asian Study on Curriculum: Comparative Study of Curriculum Development at the Stage of Elementary Education in Asian Countries"* (1970), prepared by the National Institute for Educational Research (Tokyo) under the auspices of Unesco-NIER Regional Programme for Educational Research in Asia.

The number of school days varies over a very wide range in the countries, from as low as 178 days (Thailand) to about 250 (Indonesia). There is a similarly wide variation in the length of the school day for pupils in the lower grades, though in the upper grades the differences are much less. Indonesia which has a long school year has a short school day (about 2.50 hours in the first grade), while Thailand which has a very short school year has a long school day (about 6.50 hours in the first grade). Table 20 shows the school days for 14 countries of the region for which data are available for the period around 1970.

Table 20. School days

Country	Total days of school vacation	Total days of other holidays[1]	School days in a year	Attendance required for promotion	Total no. of instruction days	Total no. of non-instruction days
Afghanistan	90	20	234	75 %	214	20
India	56	10	250	75 %	200	50
Indonesia	52	11	250	-	250	-
Iran	85	24	200	-	288	12
Japan (Tokyo)	69	12	246	50 % +	226	20
Korea, Rep. of	89	-	180	-	210	-[2]
Laos	75	21	180	-	180	-
Malaysia	77	13	195	-	195	-
Nepal	60	25	200	75 %	200	6
Pakistan	70	15	225	-	225	-
Philippines	84	8	188/192	-	188/192	-
Sri Lanka	75	10	207	-	197	10
Thailand	79	26	178	70 %	149	29
Viet-Nam, Rep. of	90	25	192	-	192	-

1. Excluding weekend holidays.

2. All primary schools set aside 5-10% of the total school hours for special activities which include athletic meets, dramatics, community services, etc.

In recent years a number of countries in the region have been examining afresh the aims and objectives of first-level education, embodying the formulations in government policy statements or legislative enactments or in reports of high-power national education commissions. A common feature of these statements of objectives is the increased stress on education as a process of socialization. To varying degrees, this emphasis is reflected in the curriculum, though changes in the curriculum in first-level education have been generally somewhat slow compared to the developments in second-level education.

In the lower grades, a "subject" of study is not necessarily as well defined as in higher levels of education, and any generalization about what is taught in the schools must be qualified by the definitions adopted in a specific country. Broadly the courses of study fall into the following areas : language arts, mathematics/arithmetic, science, social studies, health and physical education, music and fine arts, practical arts and moral or religious education. In addition, some countries allot school time specifically for group activities.

If the allotment of instructional time to a subject area is an index of the weight that the subject area has in the curriculum, a comparison of the time-subject patterns presents some interesting features.

In all countries the highest percentage of instructional time is given to language arts. The national language or a recognized local language is used as the medium of instruction. Some of the countries include the teaching of a second language - another national language as in Afghanistan, some states in India, Singapore, or a foreign language as in Sri Lanka, Malaysia, Nepal, the Philippines, Thailand and Laos. In countries such as Iran, Japan, Republic of Korea and Republic of Viet-Nam, only one language, the national language, is taught at the first level.

The subjects that claim the highest allocation of time, next to language arts, vary considerably from one country to another. In six countries (Indonesia, Japan, Republic of Korea, Laos, Nepal and Republic of Viet-Nam) it is mathematics/arithmetic ; and in another six countries it is practical arts and other curriculum activities. Social studies are generally found among the ranking subjects along with health and physical education. Science, in most countries of Asia, has found a place in the school curriculum at the first level only recently, and the allocation of instructional time varies considerably, from 3.5 per cent in Afghanistan to 10.8 per cent in Japan, 12.1 per cent in the Republic of Korea and 15 per cent in Nepal. Of fourteen countries for which data are available, ten provide instructional time for moral/religious education. Table 21 shows the distribution of instructional time in 14 countries of the region (around 1970).

Table 21. Percentage of time alloted to school subjects at first-level education

Country	Afghanistan	India (Mysore)	Indonesia	Iran	Japan	Korea, Rep. of	Laos	Malaysia	Nepal	Pakistan	Philippines	Sri Lanka	Thailand	Viet-Nam, Rep. of
Language arts														
First lang.	38.5	29.0	21.5	35.7	27.5	23.1	22.4	12.8	15.0	30.1	29.4	24.3	21.1	35.0
Second lang.														
Regional	8.6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Foreign	-	-	-	-	-	-	16.6	26.9	8.9	-	-	9.5	6.3	-
Maths./arith.	14.9	12.1	17.4	11.4	18.0	16.3	14.8	12.4	15.0	14.6	11.3	15.3	12.6	13.8
Science	3.5	10.7	9.3	7.9	10.8	12.1	7.0	7.1	15.0	7.3	11.3	2.3	11.0	10.5
Social studies	6.9	10.7	9.3	9.3	11.4	12.6	6.6	7.7	15.0	7.6	12.1	15.0	19.0	6.7
Helath/ physical ed.	3.5	-	7.3	7.9	10.8	12.4	11.2	6.4	8.4	11.4	6.0	11.1	9.5	7.7
Music/fine arts	-	-	10.5	-	7.7	14.4	3.8	6.4	10.4	-	10.4	1.6	9.5	4.3
Practical arts	8.6	25.0	11.3	18.5	10.2	5.0	7.4	-	-	18.4	15.6	15.8	11.0	4.0
Moral/ religious ed.	15.5	-	8.8	9.3	3.6	4.1	4.2	-	-	10.6	3.9	5.1	-	9.7
Other curriculum areas	-	12.5	4.6	-	-	-	6.0	20.3	12.3	-	-	-	-	8.3
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Evaluation of pupils' progress is carried out in the lower grades by the school and is used for regulating promotions from one grade to the next. The evaluation is, in most countries, heavily slanted to measuring academic or scholastic achievement. Observation, oral and written tests are used to make the assessment. Only a few countries have both achievement and psychological tests or use them for pupil evaluation (Sri Lanka, Japan, Republic of Korea, Philippines). All countries except Japan have external examinations at the end of first-level education. In the Philippines there is no regular examination but the Bureau of Public Schools randomly conducts external tests to assess instruction and pupil performance). The results of the external examination regulate admission to the next higher level of education.

Textbooks and other instructional materials are an important resource for instructional programmes. Though the supply of instructional materials, in volume and quantity, cannot still be considered as adequate in the developing countries of the region, there has been a consistent improvement during the last two decades. All countries prepare and produce their own textbooks either through state organizations or private publishers; the procedures for the preparation and testing of textbook materials have been evolved and the distribution system is getting strengthened. In very recent years, some of the countries have established, or are in the process of establishing, Curriculum Development Centres which will ensure closer integration between the curriculum and textbooks. Textbooks are supplied free to pupils in Afghanistan, Iran, Laos and the Republic of Viet-Nam; in some countries their production is subsidized by the Government (for example, Sri Lanka, some states in India and Nepal); in others they are sold at prices regulated by the Government or available to the pupils on a "lending basis". The number of textbooks in relation to the number of subjects taught in each grade is, however, still short. Where the production and supply of textbooks is adequate, the number of textbooks exceeds the number of subjects, thus giving pupils a wider range of reference. This level has not been reached in Asia except in Japan. Table 22 shows for the countries for which data are available the number of subjects taught and the number of textbooks by grade.

Table 22. Number of subjects and textbooks by grade

Country	Number of subjects and textbooks	Grade							
		I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII
Afghanistan	Number of subjects	6	6	6	10	10	10	-	-
	Textbooks used	3	3	3	7	8	8	-	-
India (Delhi territory)	Number of subjects	4	4	4	4	4	5	5	5
	Textbooks used	2	2	4	4	4	6	7	7

Table 22. Number of subjects and textbooks by grade (cont'd)

Country	Number of subjects and textbooks	Grade I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII
Indonesia	Number of subjects	9	9	9	9	9	9	-	-
	Textbooks used	6	6	12	16	16	16	-	-
Iran	Number of subjects	4	4	4	5	7	7	-	-
	Textbooks used	2	2	2	3	7	7	-	-
Japan	Number of subjects	7	7	7	7	8	8	-	-
	Textbooks used	8	10	11	12	13	13	-	-
Korea, Rep. of	Number of subjects	8	8	8	9	9	9	-	-
	Textbooks used	10	10	11	12	12	12	-	-
Laos	Number of subjects	13	12	10	16	15	15	-	-
	Textbooks used	12	11	9	13	12	12	-	-
Malaysia	Number of subjects	8	8	9	9	9	9	-	-
	Textbooks used	5	5	5	7	7	7	-	-
Nepal	Number of subjects	6	6	7	7	9	9	-	-
	Textbooks used	7	7	8	8	10	10	-	-
Pakistan	Number of subjects	6	6	7	7	7	7	-	-
	Textbooks used	1	2	5	7	8	10	-	-
Philippines	Number of subjects	9	9	9	9	9	9	-	-
	Textbooks used	5	2	9	9	7	8	-	-
Sri Lanka	Number of subjects	6	6	7	7	7	12	12	12
	Textbooks used	1	2	4	4	4	7	7	-
Thailand	Number of subjects	6	6	6	6	8	8	8	-
	Textbooks used	6	6	5	5	10	10	10	-

Some common problems and issues

The countries of Asia are to be found at different stages in the development of first-level education. Many of their problems are specific to their own social and economic context, but there are also many problems which they share in common or about which they have common experiences to share.

The findings of educational research suggest that as much as 33 per cent of the child's educational growth at 18 years is achieved by 6 years of age and 42 per cent by the age of 13. In these formative years, first-level education in the education system has a distinctive role.

While there are many educational influences which bear on the child's growth, for the vast majority of children in the developing countries, the school is the only agency which can provide certain specific skills and learning experiences in an organized form. There is no alternative to education except illiteracy and all that it implies.

There is an increasing awareness in the countries that the problems of educational development, in which the development for first-level education is critically important, cannot be solved by ad-hoc or short-term measures. The data presented earlier in this article show that in many countries educational policies in regard to first-level education have not been able to provide a firm basis for long-term and short-term planning, with resultant fluctuations and uncertainties almost from one year to another. While considerable progress in educational planning has been made in recent years, its mechanism and procedure have not yet, by and large, grown strong enough to be able to deal with the kind of problems which qualitative change and quantitative expansion give rise to. Planning has tended to be preoccupied with aggregative terms and allocation of budgetary resources; the district and institutional levels have remained more or less outside the stream along with the problems of physical planning in terms of location, distribution, instructional programmes and community support. For the development of first-level education, the strengthening of planning capability at all levels, and especially at the district and institutional levels, is now urgently called for.

First-level education was in the past treated as a preparation for secondary and higher education. It acquired meaning and significance only when continued into the secondary level. This gave first-level education a narrowly scholastic profile. The pupils' progression from one grade to another, the subjects taught and the methods of teaching will be found in the final analysis, to be dominated by the requirements of secondary schools rather than the developmental needs of the child. The resistance to a system of continuous progression (or automatic grade promotion), even in the lowest grades, arises from a fear of "lowering standards" - 'standards' which have a meaning only when applied to higher levels of education and have little or nothing to do with 6 or 7 or 8-year olds. This has had twofold consequences. On the one hand, the scholastic and abstract nature of instruction could only prepare the pupils for "white-collar jobs". It did not connect with any other frame of relevance. On the other hand, any expansion of first-level education has led almost automatically to a corresponding expansion of secondary education, resulting sometimes in the problem of "educated unemployed". It is possible that the hesitancies at times discernible in national educational policies relating to first-level education might have been prompted by the fear of the secondary and tertiary consequences of expanding first-level education.

In recent years, a number of countries in the region have been re-examining the goals, objectives and structure of education generally, and of first-level education in particular. The impetus for such re-examination is derived from larger social, economic and political forces. The goals and objectives were earlier conceived almost exclusively in terms of individual development and of certain skills of literacy and numeracy. An important, almost dominant, concern now is with the social function of education and its contribution to strengthening national cohesion and promoting national development goals. Next only to the family, schools at the first level are concerned with the largest number of the nation's children. The functions of the schools as a social institution are therefore seen as vitally important in multilingual and multiracial societies which are striving for national and social cohesion as an essential means, and object, of socio-economic development.

Another factor which has induced the current rethinking about first-level education in many countries is the increased awareness of the need for a more equitable distribution of development opportunities and benefits. It reflects not only a social consciousness which is becoming increasingly pervasive but is also prompted by a recognition that wide disparities in income and opportunities are a drag on the developmental process and inimical to it. Access to educational opportunities is directly correlated with other forms of disparities; and the lack of educational provision is seen as a deprivation which further aggravates income and social inequalities. The need for narrowing these disparities has given a renewed impetus to rural development and to re-examining the structure and content of first-level education in relation to it. How the schools should be reoriented to a positive role in development is a problem to which many countries in the region are trying to find solutions in forms such as community schools, work-based schools, development schools, etc.

Related to the conception of goals and objectives is the problem of the structure of first-level education - duration and linkages with other levels and forms of education and training. In the Asian region, two different trends are in evidence. In some countries, the duration of first-level education is being shortened in order, apparently, to cover a larger number of children with the available financial and other resources. No definitive experience has yet emerged to show whether in the environmental conditions characteristic of the developing countries, a shortened period of basic schooling is a satisfactory strategy. Does a shortened period induce a purely literacy-numeracy approach to instruction to the neglect of other aspects of upbringing such as formation of attitudes, work habits, etc.? Do pupils acquire a level of basic skills and work habits on which they can continue to build outside the school?

Does a shortened period of basic education compel a larger proportion of pupils to proceed to the next higher stage thus resulting in a larger outlay of resources? Questions such as these remain till research can give some definitive answers.

The other trend in evidence in some countries is to lengthen the period of basic universal education to 8-9 years. Very few countries are in sight of achieving it, but a modified version is becoming more common in which first-level education is a unified period of schooling of 8 or 9 years divided into two stages. The aim is, in the first instance, to provide universal education in the first stage (5 or 6 years) with provision for an increasing number to the second stage till it becomes possible to universalize the full span of first-level education. The second stage is not a preparation for secondary education but a continuation and diversification of the first stage. This structural pattern is an attempt to break away from a system in which primary education is only a passageway to secondary and higher education, and to make first-level education broad and meaningful enough to provide a terminal point for many pupils who will go out into the world of work.

Another problem which is sometimes linked with structure is the adaptation of first-level education to different environments in which the schools operate, notably rural and urban environments. Basically it concerns more the curricular programmes rather than structure. In many countries, during the colonial period, there were virtually two closed systems of first-level education, one for rural areas and the other for urban areas. Almost all countries of Asia have abolished this dualism which only served to isolate rural areas and to sharpen the disparities and social tensions between the urban and rural populations. The question therefore is no longer whether any new structure is to be created for the so-called "ruralization of education", but rather how a unified national system should be adapted to the needs of varying environments, providing, on the one hand, access to a common body of educational experiences, and, on the other hand, drawing on and contributing to the local environment, whether urban or rural, factory or farm. In this, the links of schools with out-of-school forms of education and training are specially important - skills development programmes, community and extension education, and adult education.

As data presented earlier show, universal provision of education at the first level has not yet been achieved in many countries. The number of children out-of-school or without access to schooling is large and the high rate of population growth is adding to this number faster than the rate at which additional facilities can be created. The rate at which the population is increasing would require an increase of over 50 per cent in schooling facilities in about 15 years just to maintain the enrolment ratios at the existing level. Even while the countries raise the proportion of educational expenditure in GDP, the expenditure per head of the school population at the first level can rise, if at all, only marginally. Many Governments in the region have now adopted policies for population planning, an important component of which is to raise community awareness of the population problem through education. A decline in the fertility rate, however, takes time to show in a changed pattern of population composition, and therefore in the immediate years ahead the provision of educational facilities has to be made for a fast increasing school-age population.

Despite the considerable expansion of educational facilities, disparities in educational opportunities continue in a marked degree - between urban and rural areas; between the modernized agriculture sector in the rural areas and the backward areas; between the education of boys and the education of girls. Expansion of education has followed the "traditional" pattern - high concentration in urban areas spilling over to rural townships and large villages and then thinly spreading out gradually into the remoter areas. The allocation of educational resources has followed in wake, with better facilities and qualified teachers in the urban and developing sector of the rural areas while backward areas remain inadequately served. The disparities in the provision of education reflect, and have been sharpened by, the disparities in the distribution of development benefits accruing from economic development. The "traditional" pattern of educational expansion typically runs into a barrier when it has reached 50-60 per cent enrolment ratio. Further expansion, which means expansion into remote areas or to deprived sections of the population, becomes slower and more difficult to implement. A well-designed strategy has yet to evolve which will counter the "traditional" pattern with its built-in uneveness and use the instrumentality of education to transfer opportunities to those who are deprived.

Reference has been made earlier to the persistent problem of wastage and dropout at the first level of education. Closely related to it is the problem of under-achievement or low achievement - the level of skills and attitudinal changes the schools are able to develop or how far they are able to take the children in realizing their potential. This is an area in which educational research in Asia has yet to make a significant contribution. In the absence of direct research findings, some inferences can be drawn from the results of examinations, specially in countries which still have some form of external examination at the end of first-level education. The results suggest that the problem of low achievement or under-achievement is as serious as that of visible wastage and dropping out.

Many countries in the region are currently attempting a fundamental reorientation of first-level education - schools to be community-based; geared more closely to the needs of the child and problems of everyday living; with emphasis on productive activities as learning experiences; more involvement in community services. There is an increasing recognition of the fact that a wide base of first-level education supported and supplemented by programmes for young people out of school including those of adult education and literacy is essential for the development of a balanced education system geared to the needs of national development. With the inescapable constraint of available resources, new and unconventional methods would also have to be used to optimize resource use - large classes, multiple shifts, mobilization of community resources, use of mass media, etc. In this process of reorientation and expansion, the role of teachers and teacher education are of critical importance. The present system for the preparation of teachers has, in most countries, changed little over the last many decades. It is isolated both from the schools and their problems and from the mainstream of development work. This is specially so in regard to the problem of educational expansion and development in the rural areas. Basic to the reform of first-level education is a simultaneous reform of teacher education.

APPENDIX

Table A. Progress of first-level enrolment in the developing countries of the Asian region, since 1960

Country, grades and age-group	School year beginning in	Total enrolment (000's)	Percentage female	Enrolment ratio (%)	Annual rate of increase (%)[1]
Afghanistan (I-VI ; 7-12)	1960	176	11	8	—
	1965	358	15	16	15.1
	1966	402	14	17	12.2
	1967	444	14	19	10.6
	1968	474	13	20	6.8
	1969	501	13	20	5.5
	1970	541	...	22	8.0
Bangladesh (I-V ; 5-9)	1960	3 420	28	38	—
	1965	4 280	31	44	4.6
	1966	4 600	31	46	7.5
	1967	4 920	31	47	7.0
	1968	5 500	33	51	11.8
	1969	6 300	33	56	14.5
Burma (I-V ; 5-9)	1960	1 544	46	54	—
	1965	2 250	46	70	7.8
	1966	2 624	47	80	16.6
	1967	2 792	47	83	6.4
	1968	2 857	47	82	2.3
	1969	3 015	47	85	5.5
India (I-V ; 6-10)	1960	34 994	33	61	—
	1965	50 471	36	79	7.6
	1966	51 316	36	78	1.7
	1967	52 241	36	78	1.8
	1968	54 157	37	79	3.7
	1969	55 928	...	80	3.3
	1970	58 213	37	82	4.1
	1971	59 349	...	81	2.0
Indonesia (I-VI ; 7-12)	1960	8 955	43	60	—
	1966	11 578	45	68	4.4
	1967	11 801	45	67	1.9
	1968	12 163	46	68	3.1
	1969	12 802	45	69	5.3
	1970	13 395	46	71	4.6
	1971	13 529	...	69	1.0
Iran[2] (I-VI ; 6-11)	1960	1 436	...	39	—
	1965	2 547	32	61	12.1
	1966	2 631	33	61	3.3
	1967	2 845	33	64	8.1
	1968	3 046	34	67	7.1

Table A. Progress of first-level enrolment in the developing countries of the Asian region, since 1960 (cont'd)

Country, grades and age-group	School year begin-ning in	Total enrolment (000's)	Percentage female	Enrolment ratio (%)	Annual rate of increase (%)[1]
Iran[2] (cont'd)	1969	3 238	35	69	6.3
(I-VI; 6-11)	1970	3 416	35	71	5.5
Khmer Rep.	1960	568	...	62	—
(I-VI; 6-11)	1965	794	39	74	7.0
	1966	846	41	77	6.5
	1967	934	41	84	10.4
	1968	1 024	41	90	9.7
Korea, Rep. of	1960	3 621	45	96	—
(I-VI; 6-11)	1965	4 941	46	100	6.4
	1966	5 165	47	102	4.5
	1967	5 383	48	104	4.2
	1968	5 549	48	105	3.1
	1969	5 623	48	104	1.3
	1970	5 749	48	104	2.2
	1971	5 807	48	105	1.0
Laos	1960	99	32	25	—
(I-VI; 6-11)	1965	161	36	39	10.1
	1966	178	35	42	10.7
	1967	197	36	45	10.9
	1968	206	36	46	4.2
	1969	217	37	47	5.4
	1970	245	37	51	13.1
	1971	*266	...	*54	*8.3
Malaysia					
- Sabah	1960	47	37	62	—
(I-VI; 6-11)	1965	86	40	91	12.9
	1966	99	41	101	15.1
	1967	105	42	103	5.5
	1968	107	43	101	2.4
	1969	110	43	101	2.3
	1970	111	...	98	0.6
	1971	114	...	97	2.7
- Sarawak	1960	95	39	71	—
(I-VI; 6-11)	1965	119	41	82	4.7
	1966	135	43	89	13.1
	1967	140	44	89	3.9
	1968	142	44	87	1.4
	1969	145	44	85	1.6
	1970	150	45	86	3.8

Table A. Progress of first-level enrolment in the developing countries of the Asian region, since 1960 (cont'd)

Country, grades and age-group	School year beginning in	Total enrolment (000's)	Percentage female	Enrolment ratio (%)	Annual rate of increase (%)[1]
- Malaysia (West) (I-VI ; 6-11)	1960	1 131	43	93	—
	1965	1 235	47	86	1.8
	1966	1 281	47	87	3.8
	1967	1 324	47	89	3.3
	1968	1 372	47	90	3.6
	1969	1 399	48	90	1.9
	1970	1 430	47	91	2.2
	1971	1 465	48	92	2.5
	1972	1 500	48	94	2.4
Mongolia (I-IV ; 8-11)	1960	73	...	73	—
	1965	104	...	88	7.4
	1966	112	...	96	7.3
	1967	120	...	97	7.6
	1968	130	...	102	7.9
	1969	137	50	105	6.1
	1970	146	...	109	6.3
Nepal (I-V ; 6-10)	1960	150	...	12	—
	1965	386	14	28	20.8
	1966	395	14	28	2.2
	1967	442	15	31	12.0
	1968	449	15	31	1.5
	1969	449	15	31	0.1
Pakistan (I-V ; 5-9)	1960	2 060	21	29	—
	1965	3 160	24	41	8.9
	1966	3 380	23	43	7.0
	1967	3 580	23	44	5.9
	1968	3 800	24	45	6.1
	1969	4 200	25	48	10.5
Philippines (I-VI ; 7-12)	1960	4 198	48	91	—
	1965	5 813	48	109	6.7
	1966	6 190	48	112	6.5
	1967	6 404	48	111	3.5
	1968	6 696	48	112	4.6
	1969	6 851	49	109	2.3
Singapore (I-VI ; 6-11)	1960	283	44	111	—
	1965	357	46	107	4.8
	1966	365	46	109	2.2
	1967	369	46	109	1.0
	1968	372	47	109	0.9

Table A. Progress of first-level enrolment in the developing countries of the Asian region, since 1960 (cont'd)

Country, grades and age-group	School year begin-ning in	Total enrolment (000's)	Percentage female	Enrolment ratio (%)	Annual rate of increase (%)[1]
Singapore (cont'd) (I-VI; 6-11)	1969	367	47	107	(-1.4)
	1970	364	47	105	(-0.9)
	1971	358	47	104	(-1.5)
	1972	355	47	103	(-0.9)
Sri Lanka 1960-65 (IA-V; 5-10) 1966-71 (I-V; 5-9)	1960	1 643	...	100	——
	1965	1 736	...	94	1.2
	1966	1 696	...	108	(-2.3)
	1967	1 645	...	103	(-3.0)
	1968	1 680	...	103	2.1
	1969	1 753	...	106	4.4
	1970	1 694	...	101	(-3.4)
	1971	1 693	...	99	(-0.1)
Thailand (I-VII; 7-13)	1960	3 936	47	84	——
	1965	4 630	47	79	3.3
	1966	4 800	47	80	3.7
	1967	4 983	47	80	3.8
	1968	5 123	47	79	2.8
	1969	5 382	47	81	5.1
	1970	5 583	...	81	3.7
	1971	5 657	...	80	1.3
	1972	*5 964	...	82	5.4
Viet-Nam, Rep. of (I-V; 6-10)	1960	1 278	40	101	——
	1965	1 661	43	82	5.4
	1966	1 751	44	83	5.4
	1967	2 024	44	92	15.6
	1968	2 084	44	91	3.0
	1969	2 376	45	100	14.0
	1970	2 718	...	110	14.4

1. Average annual rate of increase for the quinquennium (1960-65), and annual rate thereafter.

2. Including schools run by the Army of Knowledge.

Table B. Age-specific enrolment ratios for the first level of education (%), age range 5 to 14 years, latest year available (selected countries)

Country	Age (in years)									
	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Bangladesh, 1969/70	54	60	43	40	29	16 (16)	1.2 (9)	0.3 (6)	- (18)	- (18)
Burma, 1969/70	30	62	73	60	58	53 (56)	41 (48)	32 (44)	21 (37)	10 (33)
India, 1966/67	36	68	71	67	56 (59)	43 (52)	28 (45)	16 (37)	8 (32)	3 (27)
Iran, 1967/68	...	31	53	54	55	48	46	34 (41)	20 (35)	18 (37)
Korea, Rep. of 1971	...	[1]78	97	100	106	102	98	40 (60)	12 (63)	2 (61)
Malaysia (West) 1967	0.0	94	92	90	84	82 (83)	73 (74)	0.1 (64)	0.0 (44)	0.0 (36)
Pakistan, 1968/69	31	43	45	42	37	[2]... (9)	... (13)	... (15)	... (15)	... (12)
Philippines, 1968/69	-	3	86	105	108	109	98 (98)	95 (100)	57 (80)	26 (58)
Singapore, 1970	...	88	98	96	97	95	88 (89)	44 (82)	19 (74)	2 (60)
Sri Lanka, 1968	33	78	81	84	82 (82)	77 (80)	58 (76)	30 (67)	13 (59)	4 (51)
Thailand, 1968/69	-	35	87	100	96	84	59 (59)	40 (42)	22 (29)	8 (20)
Viet-Nam Rep. of 1969/70	-	69	92	94	87	76	47 (61)	25 (51)	11 (43)	3 (36)

Notes:
a) The figures in parentheses refer to the total of the first and second levels of education combined.

b) Ratios above 100% are theoretically not possible. These discrepancies arise from lack of exact corresponding data between population and enrolment.

1. Including children under 6 years of age.

2. Distribution by single years of age is not available for 487, 464 children aged 10 years and above, i.e. 12.7% of first-level enrolment. The figures in parentheses refer to enrolment at the second level only.

Table C. Transition ratios between the first level of education and Grade I at the second level, 1960 to 1970 (percentage)

Country	Terminal grade at first level	Code[1]	1960 to 1961	1961 to 1962	1962 to 1963	1963 to 1964	1964 to 1965	1965 to 1966	1966 to 1967	1967 to 1968	1968 to 1969	1969 to 1970	1970 to 1971
Afghanistan	VI	A	...	...	...	...	79	81	79	81	80	...	...
		B	...	...	...	...	65	68	68	71	74	...	...
Bangladesh	V	B	56	64	62	56	54	53	59	61	57	...	...
India	V	B	83	85	84	86	84	84	...	...	...	...	...
Iran	VI	A	74	62	61	72	79	83	82	82	82	...	...
		B	73	61	60	70	78	82	81	81	81	...	...
Khmer Rep.	VI	A	26	26	30	36	40	44	50	...	...	...	...
Korea, Rep. of	VI	A	...	47	45	45	49	48	49	55	62	70	...
		B	...	47	45	45	49	48	49	55	62	70	...
Laos	VI	A	...	...	...	...	...	42	38	35	...	...	...
		B	...	...	...	20	22	26	26	23	23	21	...
Malaysia (West)	VI	A	35	32	41	42	57	68	68	67	64	71	68
		B	35	32	41	42	57	68	68	67	64	71	68
Mongolia	IV	A	...	...	...	...	...	66	73	81	86	...	...
		B	...	...	...	...	...	40	47	55	60	65	...
Nepal	V	B	...	...	...	...	...	64	69	74	61	...	...
Pakistan	V	B	75	73	78	83	76	83	70	62	...	...	...
Philippines	VI	A	62	62	72	69	71	74	72	71	67	...	...

Table C. Transition ratios between the first level of education and Grade I at the second level, 1960 to 1970 (percentages) (cont'd)

Country	Terminal grade at first level	Code[1]	1960 to 1961	1961 to 1962	1962 to 1963	1963 to 1964	1964 to 1965	1965 to 1966	1966 to 1967	1967 to 1968	1968 to 1969	1969 to 1970	1970 to 1971
Singapore	VI	A	63	59	63	76	71	70	66	61	52	52	55
Sri Lanka	V	B	91	89	87	88	85	88	85	81	82	...	...
Thailand	VII	A	90	88	85	90	88	85	85	83	...	...	...
		B	88	86	83	88	86	84	84	82	...	...	...
Viet-Nam, Rep. of	V	A	45	48	50	50	56	65	69	66	...	...	...
		B	45	48	49	50	56	65	69	66	...	...	...

Note. The transition ratios (proportion of pupils proceeding to the next higher level) presented in this table was computed by comparing enrolment in the terminal grade of first-level education (in year t) with enrolment in the beginning grade of the second level (in year t+1). The ratios are given for both the total of the second level (general, vocational and teacher training), and separately for secondary general education. In this connexion, it would be noted from the table that some countries, e.g. the Republic of Korea, do not have vocational teacher training programmes at the lower stage of secondary education, while enrolment in such programmes is relatively small in most of the other countries.

The limitations of transition ratios based on enrolments are obvious: not all pupils in the terminal grade pass the primary course successfully, while the enrolment in the next higher grade would also include repeaters. To a substantial extent, however, these two factors tend to cancel each other.

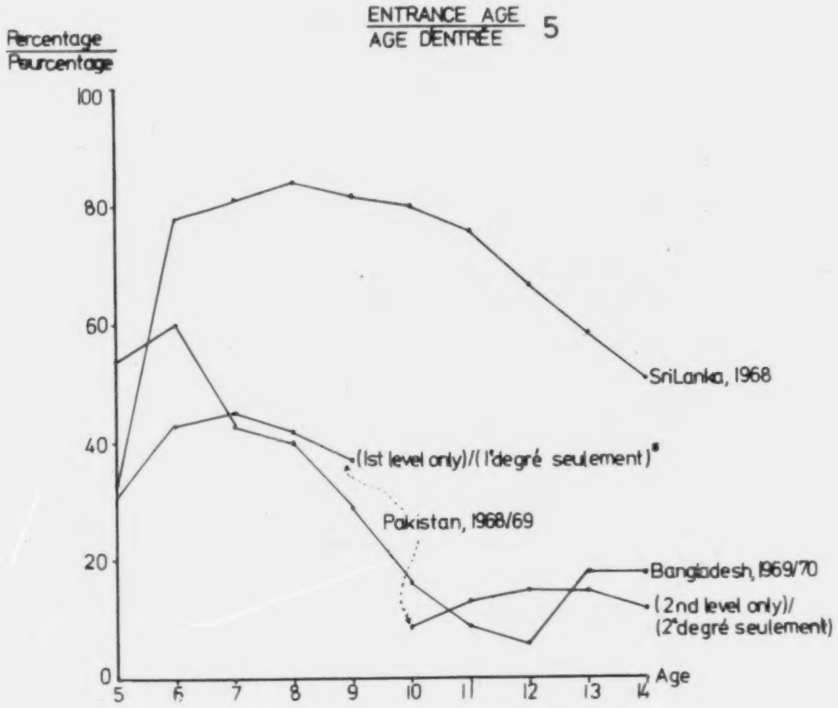
It should be stressed that direct inter-country comparisons of transition ratios may not be relevant unless taking other factors into consideration, notably the enrolment ratios and wastage rates.

[1] Code A: Transition ratio between first level (terminal grade) and total Grade I at the second level (general, vocational and teacher training).

Code B. Transition ratio between first level (terminal grade) and Grade I (general education) at the second level.

CHART I / GRAPHIQUE I

Age-specific enrolment ratios for the first and second levels of education combined
Taux de scolarisation par âge, premier et second degrés combinés



*Data by single years are not available after age 9.

*Le taux de scolarisation par année d'âge n'est pas connu pour les élèves de plus de 9 ans.

CHART I (continued) / GRAPHIQUE I (suite)

ENTRANCE AGE / AGE D'ENTRÉE 6

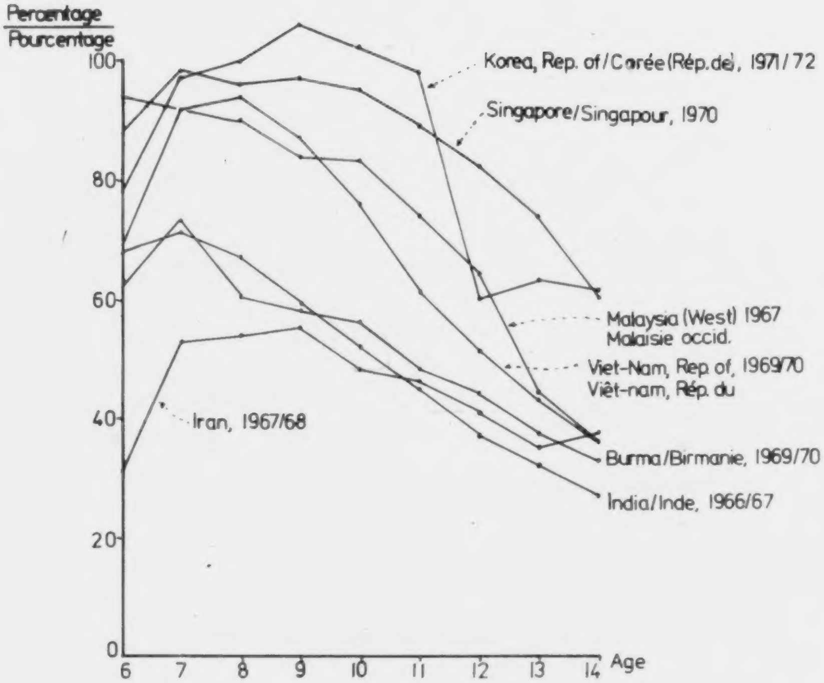


CHART I (continued) / GRAPHIQUE I (suite)

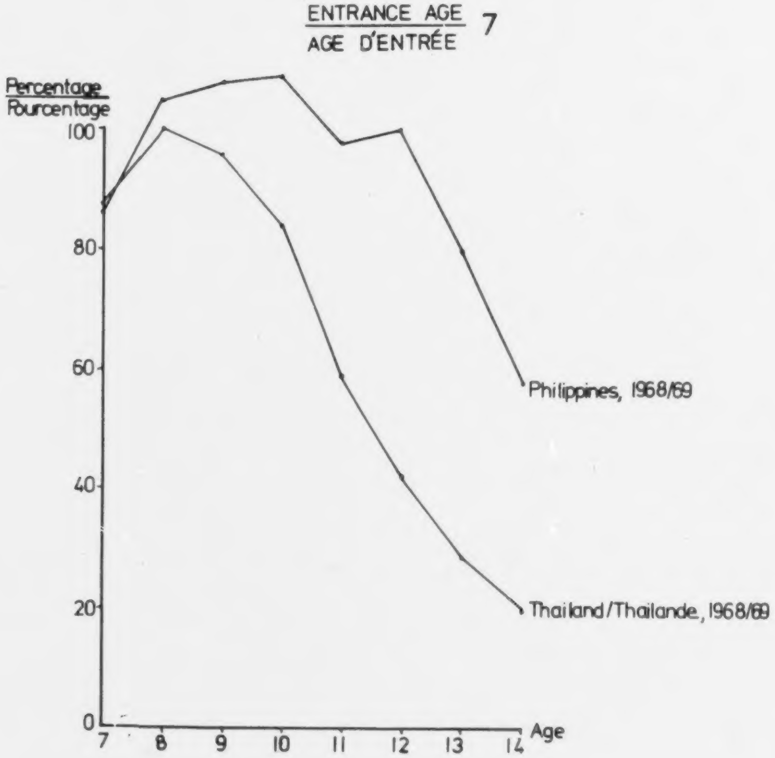


CHART II / GRAPHIQUE II

Grade enrolment distribution (in percentage)
Inscriptions par année d'étude (en pourcentage)

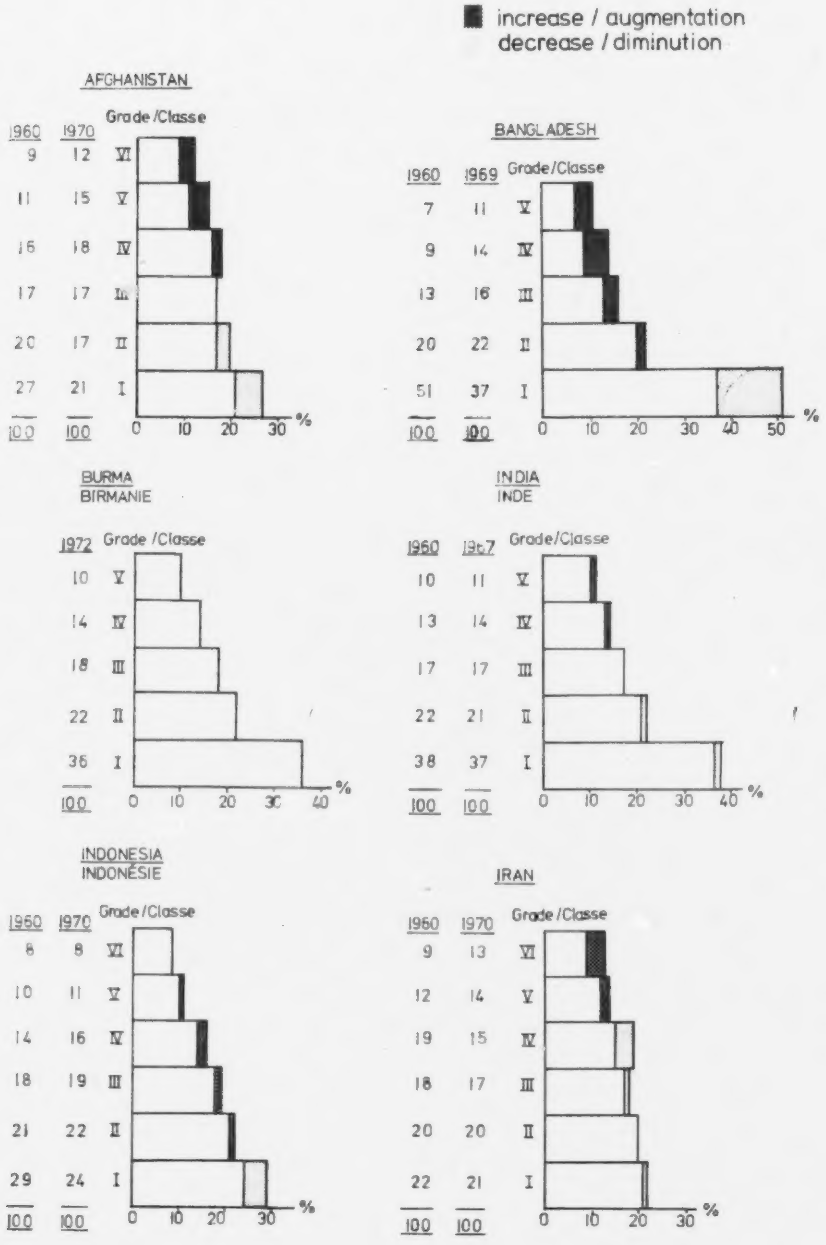
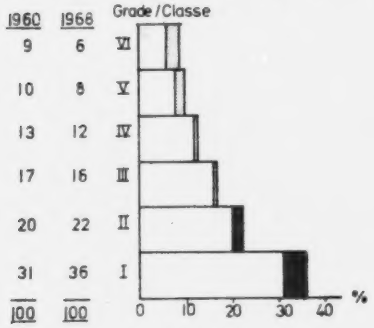
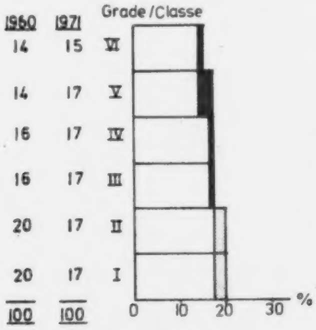


CHART II (continued) / GRAPHIQUE II (suite)

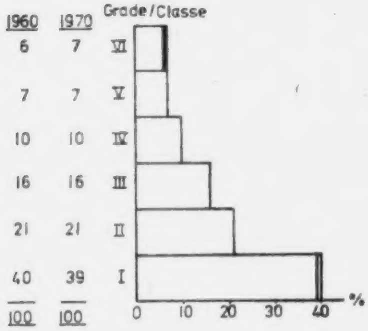
KHMER REPUBLIC (Public schools only)
RÉPUBLIQUE KHMÈRE (écoles publiques seulement)



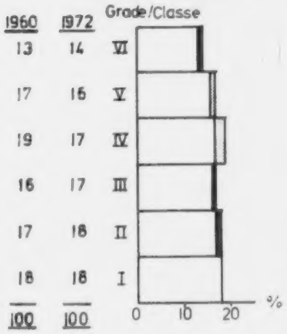
REPUBLIC OF KOREA
RÉPUBLIQUE DE CORÉE



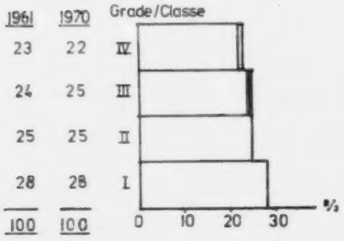
LAOS



MALAYSIA (WEST)
MALAISIE OCCIDENTALE



MONGOLIA
MONGOLIE



NEPAL

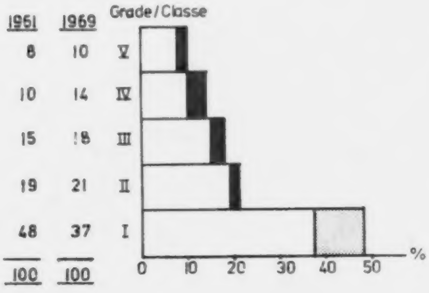


CHART II (continued) / GRAPHIQUE II (suite)

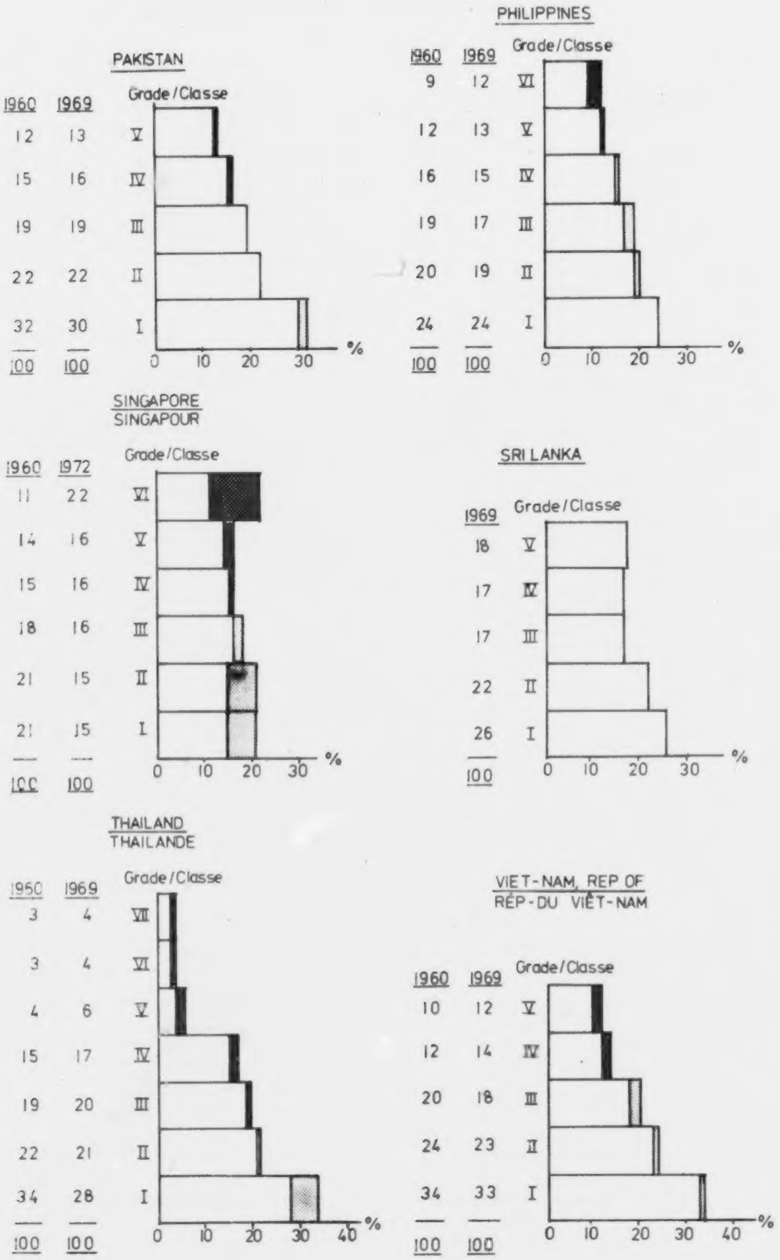
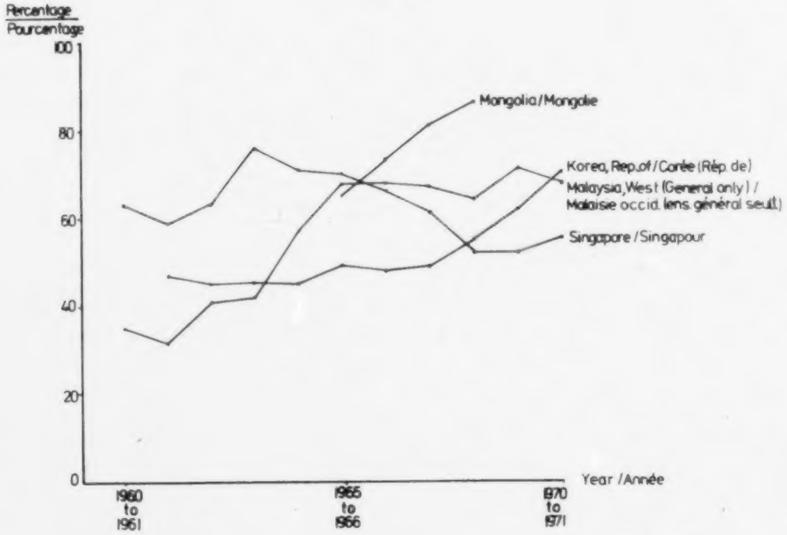


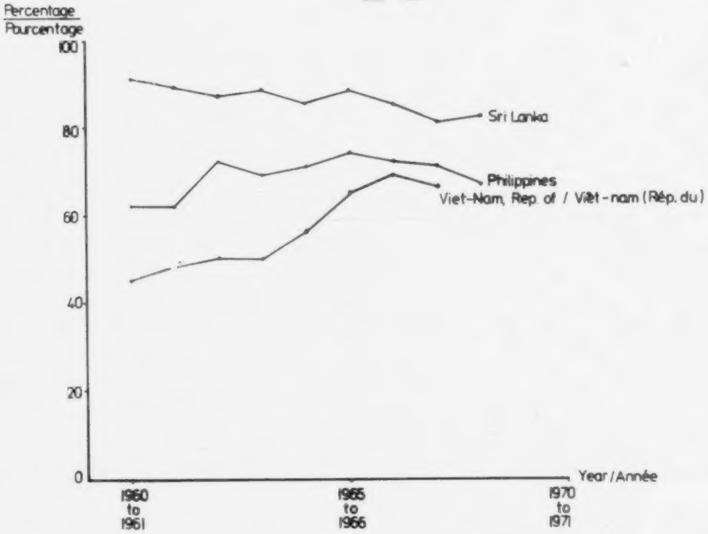
CHART III / GRAPHIQUE III

Transition ratios between the first level and the second level* of education
Taux de passage du premier degré au second degré*

III A



III B

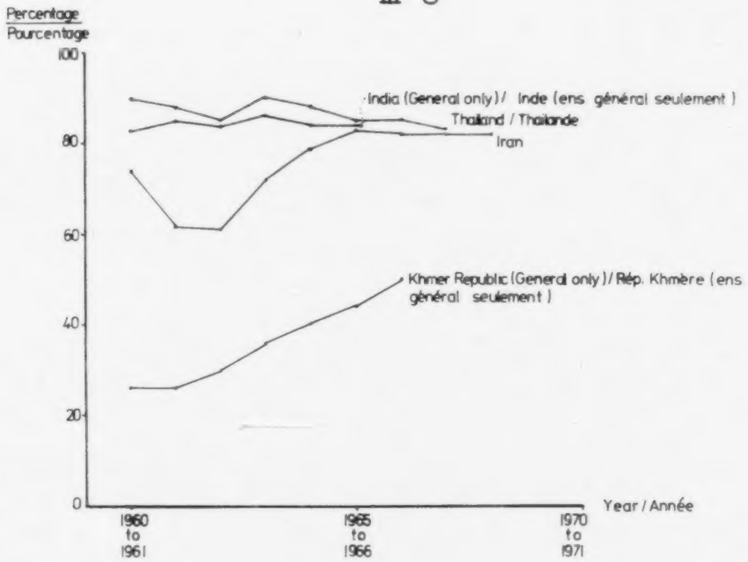


*For clarifications of these charts, see text in the section "Transition from the first to the second level of education".

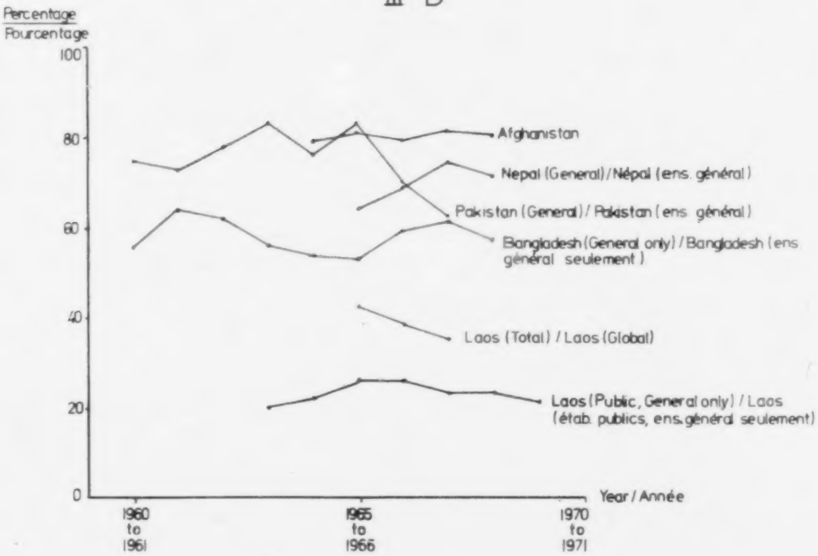
*Ces tableaux sont expliqués dans la partie de l'introduction intitulée: "Passage du premier degré au second degré".

CHART III (continued) / GRAPHIQUE III (suite)

III C



III D



SECTION 1.1

FIRST LEVEL OF EDUCATION
IN
ASIAN COUNTRIES

Bulletin of the Unesco Regional Office
for Education in Asia
Number 14, June 1973

PRIMARY EDUCATION IN AFGHANISTAN

by G.N. Naushad

1. The system of primary education

Primary education in Afghanistan includes Grades I through VI. Children are enrolled in the lower primary grades (I-III) between the ages of 7 (legal entrance age) and 11 and in the upper primary grades (IV-VI) between the ages of 10 and 17. Enrolment begins in each of the two areas of the country two months before the opening date of the school. (The country is divided into 'cold'weather and 'hot' weather areas, and each area follows its own calendar in order to avoid weather extremes which affect attendance, make transportation or communication almost impossible, and teaching and learning unmanageable). Enrolment proceeds under the auspices of the Provincial Governor, representatives of the Provincial Education Authority, e.g. Provincial Directors of Education, and headmasters of schools. In cities, e.g. Kabul, representatives of the municipality are also involved in the enrolment procedure.

There are no substantial restrictions on admissions, although children are required to have achieved normal physical and mental growth by the time they enrol. Also, a child has to present an identification card bearing the signature of his parents and a health certificate proving that he has been inoculated for small-pox. In cases where these conditions are not met, the headmaster is responsible for aiding the child to meet them.

It should be noted that, although there are no substantial restrictions on enrolment, only 22.5% of the school-age population, excluding nomads, applied for admission in 1970/71. The national aim is to reach a position where suitable facilities and teachers will be made available to all Afghan children in accordance with the provision of Article 34 of the Constitution which makes education the right of every Afghan. If it happens that fewer children come for enrolment than there are places available in the schools, the school authorities are responsible for locating children who have not presented themselves and for enrolling them.

The author wishes to express his thanks to the Government of Afghanistan for the opportunity of preparing this report, and to Dr. Donald G.W. Schutte for his assistance and guidance in the preparation of this article.

Provision is made for transfer of children from one school to another. In cases where a child wishes to be transferred from a private school to a Government school, the headmaster of the school he wishes to enter is responsible for administering a test in order to place the child at his proper grade level.

Classes are graded. In urban areas each class has a teacher, but in rural areas, self-contained classrooms comprise children in Grades I to III under the tutelage of one teacher. These schools were formerly called village schools, but have been redesignated as 'rural' schools. This reflects the fact that as human and financial resources permit, according to Government plans for education, these schools are to be expanded to complete primary schools having six grades, with one teacher assigned to each grade. This process is begun by making one-teacher schools into two-teacher schools. Rural schools are opened in places where no regular primary school exists within a radius of five kilometres of a population centre. The first grade of these schools is established when a minimum of ten children are available to be enrolled. Special textbooks are supplied. Those who complete the third grade are awarded certificates. Those who wish at this point to join their parents in their work are permitted to do so. Others who wish to continue their education may be enrolled in the nearest primary school having Grades IV-VI if no provision has been made to expand the rural school which they have been attending.

In the more urban areas, e.g. Kabul, Kandahar, Jalabad, Mazari-Sharif, Kunduz, Herat, primary schools may be either geographically separated from, or located in physical proximity to, secondary schools known as lycées. In either case, provision is made for one teacher per class who teaches all subjects. In these schools, headmasters, assistant headmasters, and specially assigned teachers, are legally responsible for continuing classes when a regular teacher is absent for any reason.

A. Administration and control

The administration is centralized under the Royal Ministry of Education. The Minister of Education, appointed in accordance with the Constitution of Afghanistan, is responsible to His Majesty the King and the people of Afghanistan through their elected representatives in the Shura (Parliament). The National Government alone has the right and the duty to establish and administer primary education and higher learning. Afghan nationals are however entitled to establish technical and literacy schools. Conditions for the establishment of such schools, their curricula and conditions of learning, are determined by law as they are for regular Government schools.

Religious schools associated with local mosques are a feature of Afghan education, but they are not under the control of the Royal Ministry of Education. Likewise, kindergartens are run under the auspices of women's associations. No data concerning these two types of schools are available.

Primary schools located in Kabul City are administered by the Directorates of Primary Education of Boys and Girls under the control of the Royal Ministry of Education. In the 28 provinces (including Kabul Province), the Provincial Director of Education is responsible for administering primary education. The Department of Primary Education in the Royal Ministry of Education maintains a general control over primary schools in all the provinces. Each school unit has a headmaster in charge.

B. Size of primary education, school year 1970/1971

Primary school-age population, ages 7 to 12	3 042 000
Total enrolment in primary schools	537 829
Proportion of girls in total primary enrolment	16.1 %
Primary enrolment ratio	19.1 %
Total number of teachers	13 107
Proportion of female teachers	20.2 %
Proportion of trained teachers	41.2 %
Pupil-teacher ratio	40
Total number of schools	3 232
Recurrent public expenditure on education, all levels (million Afghanis)	880.75
a) proportion spent on primary education	34 %
b) primary per-pupil cost (Afghanis)	533

C. Medium of instruction

Constitutionally, there are two official languages, Pushtu and Dari. The two languages are distributed geographically. The language of instruction in Pushtu-speaking areas is Pushtu, and in Dari-speaking areas, Dari. Beginning in Grade IV, Dari is taught as a second language in Pushtu schools, and Pushtu in Dari schools.

D. Procedure of evaluation and promotion of pupils

Pupils' learning is evaluated by tests drawn up by teachers and administered orally by class teachers in the first three grades. Tests are given after the first three months of the school year, then at the end of six months, and once again at the end of the year. The general technique in the lower primary grades involves questioning each pupil in regard to each subject and assigning marks to his oral responses. An exception to this is in writing, where the pupil is expected to demonstrate his abilities on the blackboard. Marks assigned in the three tests are averaged to obtain final marks for the year. In the upper primary grades, written tests of the essay and short-answer type are given as well as oral examinations. At this level, however, oral examinations are more sophisticated. Questions are written on slips of paper for each subject. The class teacher, assisted by a monitoring teacher, usually from the same school, places the slips of paper on the pupil's desk. The teacher then reads these questions to the child who gives an oral response to each. The response is assigned a mark agreed upon by the teacher and the monitor. The final marks, which are the average of the results of the three tests during the year, are taken into consideration during the selection procedures for secondary schools (lycées) after the sixth year. The entire evaluation procedure is monitored by Provincial and Central Ministry of Education Inspectors from the Department of Inspection. Teacher ratings are partially based on the Inspectors' rating of pupils' learning as assessed by a system of questioning a sample of pupils in each subject.

II. Universal primary education

Article 34 of the Constitution promulgated on 1 October 1964 states that "Education is the right of every Afghan and shall be provided free of charge by the State and the citizens of Afghanistan. The aim of the State in this sphere is to reach a stage where suitable facilities will be available to all Afghans, in accordance with the provisions of the law. The Government is obliged to prepare and implement a programme for balanced and universal education in Afghanistan ... Primary education is compulsory for all children in areas where facilities for this purpose are provided by the State..."

Thus, the Constitution makes it clear that universal, compulsory primary education is an aim toward which the State is moving.

Any consideration of universal primary education should also take into account the role of religious schools, conducted in the mosques, which emphasize religious studies and act as substitutes for Government schools. These mosque schools enrol a large number of male students whose expenses are paid by their parents. It is impossible, however, to take these schools into account statistically, since there are no data available because they are not under the control of the Government.

Mosque schools are a product of history and tradition. The Constitution which preceeded the present one, promulgated in 1931, provided in Articles 20 to 22 that primary education was compulsory for all Afghan children, and that all educational institutions would be controlled by the Government, except for the traditional ones which could be developed freely. Though these schools are not specifically mentioned in the present Constitution, and rural schools tend to be substituted for them, the tradition persists. It should also be mentioned that there is a tradition of private tuition for girls which cannot be taken into account statistically because it is not under the auspices of the Ministry of Education.

Afghanistan has recently begun collecting general demographic data. Up to now, the degree of accuracy of these data remains open to question. At present, estimates of the total population vary, depending on the source, from 14 to 17 million or more. Therefore there are no definite data concerning the total number of primary school-age children in the country. The Department of Statistics, Ministry of Planning, estimated that in 1969/1970 there were 2,407,000 children in the school-age group (7 to 12), excluding nomads. The actual enrolment for rural and primary schools for the same year was 537,829 or 22.3% of the school-age population. The total population is estimated to grow at the rate of 2.1% per year. If, as an approximation, the school-age population is supposed to grow at the same rate, it will be 2,792,581 by the year 1976, the end of the Fourth Five-Year Plan. The projected enrolment for rural and primary schools in 1976 is 914,000 pupils. If this projection is met, it would represent an enrolment of 32% of the population between 7 and 12 years. This represents a growth of 376,171 pupil places or 9,404 classes of 40 in the six-year period from 1970 to 1976, with a need for the same number of teachers if the desired one teacher per class expansion is to take place in village schools. The size of the problem can be recognized from these rather precarious data. Universal primary education can be achieved only in the very distant future.

There are two types of primary schools in Afghanistan. The first type is the regular primary school which has Grades I through VI and cater to the age-group from 7 to 12. They are found in the more urban areas of Afghanistan, and the largest number are found in Kabul, the capital city. The second type is the village or rural school which is set up to serve the rural population. These are established under a separate set of regulations; most of them are self-contained, with one teacher, three grades, and one general purpose textbook. The Government's plans for these schools are (a) to include all the six primary grades,

(b) to provide for an increase in the number of teachers, and (c) to provide the same textbooks as used in the regular primary schools.

The factors which impede the accomplishment of the aim of universal primary education in Afghanistan are widely recognized. A minimum list would include : (a) limited financial resources ; (b) limited number of qualified teachers combined with limited teacher training personnel and facilities ; (c) limited and inadequate learning space, e. g. classrooms, libraries, media centres, laboratories and playgrounds, and limited boarding space for pupils coming from remote areas ; and (d) limited access to school units established in remote areas where communication and transportation problems make contact difficult.

In Afghanistan both the recurrent and development budgets for primary education come from the national budget. In 1970/1971 the total share for education, including primary, secondary and vocational schools and higher educational institutions including Kabul University, was 880, 753, 255 (83 Afghanis = US $1. 00). This represented close to 1½% of the national income of 62. 3 billion Afghanis. The 1970/71 budget of 300, 500, 000 Afghanis for primary education was 34 % of the total education budget. Between the years 1967 and 1971 the cost per pupil increased from 498 Afghanis to 533 Afghanis. The projected rise in the Fourth Five-Year Plan is to 662 Afghanis per pupil by the year 1976. The same Plan projects an increase in the budget for primary education to 36 % of the total education budget by 1976.

III. Resources for universal primary education

Education in Afghanistan is entirely free. An estimation of the national expenditure on education should take into account :

1. the budget of the Ministry of Education ;
2. the expenditure of other Government agencies on educational activities ;
3. the voluntary contributions of local communities ;
4. the expenditure on private educational activities such as instruction given in mosques or for private tuitions.

The budget includes two main divisions :

1. the ordinary or current budget, which includes recurring expenditure on existing institutions and continuing activities, and ordinary expenditure on new projects (which is sometimes called the ordinary development expenditure). The proposed budget is prepared by the Planning Department and then incorporated in the overall budget of the Ministry of Education by the President of Administration for transmission to the Ministry of Finance ;

2. the development budget, which includes expenditure on land, construction, and equipment. It is prepared by the Planning Department of the Ministry of Education and is forwarded to the Ministry of Planning for approval before it is submitted to the Ministry of Finance.

Most of the problems of financing are quite obvious and do not need much elaboration. Since education is basically public and centralized, it is mainly financed by the budget of the Central Government. In this respect, the possibilities of increasing the educational expenditure are limited to two: (a) an increase in overall Government resources, with a constant share allocated to education; and (b) an increase in the relative share of education, as compared to other sectors of Government activities.

Changes taking place from the first point of view are difficult to assess because there is no adequate measure of price variations. But there is no doubt that the share of education in overall Government expenditure has recently and unavoidably been increasing in order to meet the growing demand for more school facilities.

The projections and annual targets of the Five-Year Plan form the basis of the annual budgetary request. Each year, the development budget is prepared by the Planning Department in accordance with that year's target. These requests are then considered by the Ministry of Planning, which fixes the budget ceiling for each Ministry by taking into account the financial situation of the country and the needs of the general development plan. The ceiling for the Ministry of Education's budget is fixed after a good deal of discussions between the departments concerned in the two Ministries. When the total annual budget is decided upon and accepted by the Parliament and His Majesty the King, it is then announced. The Planning Department then revises the annual target to make it conform with the approved budget, and this is divided into quarterly allocations. The programme of the year is roughly indicated in the budget request. Detailed programming is demanded by the planning bodies, but except for some foreign aid projects such programming is not carried out.

The development budget consists of three parts: (i) construction; (ii) equipment; and (iii) operating cost of new institutions. The procedures for execution and financing of these different categories of the plan are not the same.

In the construction of schools, five central agencies are involved: (i) the Ministry of Education, (ii) the Ministry of Finance, (iii) the Ministry of Planning, (iv) The Ministry of Public Works, and (v) the Afghanistan Bank.

The upgrading of primary schools is decided upon by the Ministry of Education. With regard to rural schools and primary schools, the central authority determines the quota of each province, and then the provincial directors are authorized to decide upon the location of schools according to local conditions.

The operating cost of schools is estimated by the Planning Department of the Ministry of Education according to the standards of the Plan. The amount is included in the ordinary budget. However, during the Second Plan, especially in its latter years, the money allocated for the new schools was less than estimated, because the number of new schools opened were greater than the annual targets, while the allotments were less than estimated for the execution of annual targets. Therefore a number of schools in the last year of the Plan were established without adequate staffing and accommodation. The above situation exists until now. The procedures, especially those for school building, are very time-consuming, mainly because five agencies are involved. The Ministry of Education is not the promoter of school buildings: it distributes the quarterly allocations but has no effective control over the expenditure for construction. The Public Works representatives in charge of reporting on the work in progress do not send satisfactory reports at the end of each quarter. The lack of efficient communication facilities in some provinces also causes long delays in receiving money and sending back reports on the work in progress. Consequently, the distribution of quarterly allocations is in most cases carried out on the basis of non-justified requests.

During the Second Plan, the total budget annually approved for the Ministry of Education was much less than the annual requests. Consequently, in order to make up for the deficit of the ordinary budget, more money was provided by the Ministry of Finance through additional allocations or by cutting the development budget.

IV. Orientation of primary education

The basic purpose of Afghan primary schools is to provide an education for the children of Afghanistan which is relevant to the values and needs of their society. These values and needs have been identified by a National Commission on Education as: (a) the Islamic religion, (b) the maximum development of Afghanistan, (c) justice and equality, (d) political democracy, (e) education, and (f) the maximum development of individuals.

The aims and objectives of primary education derived from these values and needs are as follows:

1. To cultivate the Islamic religion;

2. To promote the maximum development of Afghanistan in the areas of (a) history, tradition, and culture, (b) literature, (c) constitutional monarchy, and (d) natural resources;
3. To foster political democracy;
4. To promote a more efficient economic system;
5. To improve social life and conditions in the areas of (a) interpersonal relations, (b) social welfare, (c) safety and protection, (d) community health, and (e) use of leisure time;
6. To promote and develop knowledge and those which are essential for living in the modern world: (a) in communications, i.e. reading, writing, composition, grammar, spelling, speaking, listening; (b) in languages, i.e. second languages (Dari or Pushtu) and foreign languages; (c) in physical and biological sciences; (d) in quantitative relationships; and
7. To foster individual self-realization through (a) physical development, health and body care, (b) intellectual growth and development, and (c) cultivation and development of talents and abilities.

The specificity of the above statement concerning purposes, aims and objectives arises out of the efforts of the the Royal Ministry of Education to re-orient its curriculum, textbooks and teachers' guides to the needs of modern Afghanistan. A Curriculum and Textbook Project is administered by a Director-General under the Presidency of Primary Education.

The Project was begun in 1966. Its purposes are: (a) to provide a modern structure for the primary school curriculum; (b) to write new textbooks and teachers' guides in 7 subject areas: language arts (first and second languages), mathematics, health, science, social studies, practical work, and religion; (c) to develop an organization in the Ministry for the permanent renewal of materials and personnel to keep curriculum, textbooks, and methods up-to-date in relation to Afgnan resources and needs.

In 1968, a National Commission on Education, after agreeing upon the purposes, aims and objectives of primary education, developed the scope and sequence related to each subject area. A Steering Committee composed of the Presidents of the various Departments concerned in the Royal Ministry of Education was established as the policy-making body to direct Project efforts. In turn, that Committee appointed review committees consisting of specialists in each subject area; they were made responsible to the Steering Committee to ascertain that the purposes, aims and objectives and the scope and sequence were in fact being implemented.

One hundred and forty-two primary school books and teachers' guides in 7 subjects are at various stages of production or already in use. Content and teaching methods are developed for each subject by Afghan writers assigned to the Project, who write in both national languages, Pushtu and Dari. After approval by the appropriate Review Committee and the Steering Committee, trial materials in each subject are placed in selected schools in Pushtu and Dari speaking areas. Some of the schools are associated with teacher training colleges as laboratory schools; others represent regular Afghan schools. Enough teachers and pupils use the materials to provide Project researchers with experimental and control data and to feed back judgements concerning reliability, validity, and usefulness of the materials. Revisions are made after these field try-outs and research or judgement indicates the necessity for change. The revised materials must then be edited and approved for publication in the final form. The first printing is then distributed to all schools in the country.

Prior to and at the point of distribution, the prevalent problems concern communication and utilization. The Project enlists the co-operation and services of other departments of the Ministry of Education and agencies working within the Ministry to ensure the efficient and effective use of the textbooks and teachers' guides produced. Other departments include Teacher Education, Inspection, and Compilation. Other agencies include Unesco which is associated with the Royal Ministry of Education in its work in teacher education at the central Ministry and in the teacher training colleges.

Essentially the problems of communication are those associated with conveying messages relating to the content and methods contained in the new textbooks and teachers' guides to those who effectuate or are affected by their use. These include administrators at all levels, teacher educators and pre-service and in-service teachers in the training colleges and the schools, as well as the inspectors in the central Ministry and the provinces. Programmes are designed to re-orient these educators who share the responsibility of facilitating and making proper use of the new contents and methods. The use of books and teachers' guides is monitored both in the teacher training programmes and in the schools. Research is conducted which will allow for minor revisions in the second printings and for major revisions in second editions. The criterion by which effectiveness and efficiency of both content and methods must eventually be measured is the effect they have upon both teacher and pupil behaviour as it is related to the stated purposes, aims and objectives.

The problems associated with the production work of the Project, viz. communicating content and methods to educators and promoting efficient and effective use of textbooks and teachers' guides, are not unique to Afghanistan. They are similar to those encountered anywhere in the world.

Some of the problems related to the Curriculum and Textbook Project itself include the following:

1. How to use effectively an existing Ministry structure and create new ones for the purpose of producing, distributing, and utilizing textbooks and teachers' guides when the purpose itself is new to the organization;
2. How to make effective use of the limited resources to solve a problem of national proportions - the reorientation of an entire curriculum using textbooks and teachers' guides as the vehicle for reform;
3. How to produce books and materials when there is a scarcity of trained personnel, and its corollary: how to continue production while the limited number of writers and other personnel go for further training;
4. How to make the normally slow, but necessary, procedures for approval of trial materials and final versions of books and materials more efficient while maintaining effectiveness in terms of resources and the implementation of national purposes, aims and objectives;
5. How to ensure distribution to teacher educators in the training colleges in order to orient the current group of pre-service teachers in training; and how to ensure distribution to all schools in the country, including the most remote and inaccessible.

Some of the problems related to communicating about and utilizing of the textbooks and teachers' guides are as follows:

1. How to promote co-operation between and among all the departments and agencies which must co-operate if textbooks and teachers' guides are to be effectively utilized;
2. How to develop programmes to re-orient teacher educators in the teacher training colleges and through them the student-teachers;
3. How to re-orient large numbers of in-service teachers who are often in remote areas where accessibility is difficult and who lack proper qualifications;
4. How to develop a programme to re-orient school administrators and inspectors/supervisors who must supervise, monitor and evaluate the use of the new content and methods as well as judge their efficiency and effectiveness in relation to national resources, purposes, aims, and objectives.

Just as the problems are not unique, neither are the solutions. The Steering Committee mentioned above serves to promote the co-operation necessary to ensure curriculum development and the production, distribution, and utilization of textbooks and teachers' guides. Comprising the Presidents of the various departments concerned, it represents a new synthesis drawn from the regular administrative structure of the Ministry of Education to serve the particular purpose of curriculum development and book production. Limited resources have been augmented by the use of foreign experts as well as material and financial assistance. Careful selection from the ranks of experienced teacher educators, on-the-job training and training in universities overseas have served to make up for the lack of trained personnel as well as to ensure that a body of professionally qualified persons is developed to continue the work of curriculum development and textbooks production when the foreign experts depart. Experience and know-how, plus the delineation of responsibilities between review tasks as contrasted to editorial tasks, help to make the work of the Review Committees more efficient and effective in their recommendations to the Steering Committee. Finally, direct and pre-publication distribution to the teacher training colleges and a system which places the responsibility for distribution from the centre outward to the schools rather than with the schools themselves, ensures a more rapid and controlled distribution of books.

Solutions to problems of communication about and utilization of the textbooks, teachers' guides, and methods are not unique either. Departments and agencies, having the interests of the people of Afghanistan at heart, have been very co-operative once the initiative was taken by the Curriculum and Textbook Project personnel to elicit materials or services from them or to disseminate information about its work. In January 1973, audiences which the new content and methods contained in the pupils' books and teachers' guides have to reach, were identified. They include administrators at all levels, teacher educators, foreign experts working in the Department of Teacher Training at the central Ministry and in the training colleges, student-teachers, inspectors and supervisors, and in-service teachers. Each audience is unique. Reaching them involves separate solutions. The Curriculum and Textbook Project must work within the existing system to reach each audience. Thus, for example, when a conference of headmasters is called or a supervisors' training course is conducted under the auspices of the Department of Teacher Education and/or with the co-operation of Unesco, the project personnel avail themselves of the opportunity to present the new content and methods to them.

Such presentations, however, raise their own set of problems which call for solutions. Time is another source of difficulty: simply stated, the re-orientation of the various audiences to the full range of content and methods contained in the textbooks and teachers' guides needs to be managed in a limited time frame.

New textbooks and teachers' guides are produced and distributed at varied intervals. If the Project is to take advantage of the various courses, seminars, workshops and conferences as they occur, it can only present at one time a limited, but representative, sample of content and methods in each subject plus an overview of the scope and sequence of things to come. At the same time, it must provide the members of each audience with a method for learning about the remainder of the materials as they come from the press. If the books and guides are to be successfully used, the Project must also provide the members of each audience with some indications as to what is expected of them in relation to the materials in their roles as headmasters, inspectors and supervisors, teacher educators, teachers, etc.

The need to orient persons in a variety of audiences with the specific content and methods contained in the new textbooks and teachers' guides competes for time with the need both to upgrade the general educational level of participants and to train them in relation to other duties not directly connected with the use of the new materials in the classrooms, for example, inspectorial, supervisory, or administrative duties.

All these problems are magnified and complicated many times over when one considers the need to reach large numbers of in-service teachers in remote areas. At present, the Unesco team is devising a scheme to reach these teachers and find appropriate solutions.

Statistics of primary education
(public and private schools)

Table 1. Trends in primary school-age population and primary enrolment

School year	Population of primary school age (7-12)	Total primary enrolment[1]	Enrolment ratio (%)	Annual enrolment increase (%)
1965/66	...	402 342	...	
1966/67	2 790 000	444 237	15.9	10.4
1967/68	...	475 081	...	6.9
1968/69	...	500 665	...	5.4
1969/70	...	540 685	...	8.0
1970/71	3 470 000	572 930	16.5	6.0

1. The age of pupils enrolled does not correspond exactly with the age range for primary education. The proportion of over-age children is estimated at 20%.

Table 2. Trends in the teaching staff and the number of schools

School year	Total number of teachers	Number of female teachers	Percentage of female teachers	Number of schools
1965/66	5 736	1 133	19.8	2 013
1966/67	7 852	1 244	15.8	2 305
1967/68	9 100	1 320	14.5	2 493
1968/69	10 245	1 353	13.2	2 848
1969/70	11 523	1 468	12.8	3 048
1970/71	13 112	2 183	16.7	3 232

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PRIMARY EDUCATION IN INDIA

by D.S. Rawat

According to Article 45 of the Constitution, universal education is to be provided to all the children up to the age of 14 years in India. The target year for universal primary education was 1960. Due to the magnitude of the task and lack of resources, the target could not be achieved and at present about 83% of the children in the age-group 6-11 and about 37% of the children in the age-group 11-14 are going to the school. Now it is envisaged to bring all the children up to age 11 into the schools by 1975-76 and up to age 14 by 1980-81.

School education at the primary level in India is essentially a partnership of a local body and the State Government.

The country has launched several programmes for universal primary education. The method of persuasion rather than compulsion is used for this purpose. Special attention is paid to children who live in tribal areas, hilly regions and sparsely populated country.

Under the Fifth Five-Year Plan, a massive programme for universal primary education will be implemented by the Ministry of Education and Social Welfare. The outlay for this programme in terms of budget would be Rs.15,750 million.

In this article:

1. The terms "primary" and "elementary" are used interchangeably. The term "primary education" is used for lower primary and higher/upper primary/middle. The term "lower primary" denotes Grades I to IV or V. The term "higher primary/upper primary/middle" denotes Grades V to VII or VIII.
2. Bibliographical references are given at the end of the article.

Historical background

India is one of the largest democracies of the world. There has always been a growing realization in this country that for the survival of democracy and the nation's prosperity, its citizens should be educated.

In the days before Independence, the education of the masses was neglected and the Government concentrated its energies on the establishment of institutions of higher education in the form of degree-giving universities. The colonial educational policy was to produce a handful of educated people who could serve in subordinate positions in offices. For the first time the voice was raised by Gokhale for introducing compulsory primary/elementary education. Unfortunately Gokhale's bill, recommending the gradual extension of the principle of compulsion in elementary education which was introduced in the Central Legislature in March 1912, was defeated primarily by the opposition of official members. However, the national leaders continued their efforts for promoting the cause of education for the masses by making elementary education compulsory. On 15 August 1947 India became a Republic. The Constitution of India was adopted on 26 January 1950.

I. The educational system

In India, education is a State subject. The nomenclature and structure of the various stages of education differ from State to State. When the Education Commission (1964-66), appointed by the Ministry of Education, Government of India, submitted its report in 1966, the existing pattern of school and colleges classes was as given in Table 1.

After making a close study of the pattern of duration of school and college education, the Education Commission (1964-66) strongly recommended the following unified system for the whole country:

1. Pre-primary: Age-group 3 to 6 years
2. Primary stage: Grades I-VII or I-VIII
3. (i) Lower primary: Grades I-IV or Grades I-V
   (ii) Upper primary: Grades V-VII or Grades V-VIII
3. Secondary stage: Grades VIII to XII or IX to XII
4. First degree: three-year course

The current thinking is to adopt the uniform pattern of school and college education, viz. 10 2 3, in all States and Union Territories. It is proposed to obtain this uniformity during the Fifth Five-Year Plan.[8] Generally speaking as the position stands to-day in India, the lower primary stage may be considered as comprising Grades I to V and the upper primary (or middle school) stage Grades VI to VIII.

Table 1. Pattern of school and college classes in different States[9]
(1965-66)

State	Lower primary	Higher primary	Secondary	Pre-university course	Higher secondary	First degree	Total
Andhra Pradesh	5	3	3	1	4	3	15
Assam and Nagaland	5	3	4	1	5	3	16
Bihar, Gujarat and Maharashtra	7(a)		4	1	..	3(b)	15
Jammu and Kashmir, Punjab, Rajasthan and West Bengal	5	3	2	1	3	3	14
Kerala	4	3	3	2	..	3	15
Madhya Pradesh	5	3	..	..	3	3	14
Madras	5	3	3	1	..	3	15
Mysore	4	3	3	1	4	3	14
Orissa	5	2	4	1	-	3	15
Uttar Pradesh	5	3	2	..	2(c)	2	14

(a) Integrated primary course, there being no separate middle schools.

(b) In the University of Bombay there is a two-year intermediate course followed by a two-year degree course.

(c) Refers to intermediate colleges.

N.B.: 1. The figures indicate the duration of the stage in years. In totalling up, please include (i) Secondary and Pre-university course or (ii) Higher secondary. but not both.

2. Among the Union Territories, Delhi, Andaman and Nicobar Islands and Laccadive, Minocoy and Amindivi Islands have adopted the higher secondary pattern. The other Union Territories usually follow the pattern of the State with whose Secondary Board or Universities they co-ordinate their educational programmes (e.g., Himachal Pradesh follows Punjab).

The age of entrance in Grade I is 6 years. It has been found that 25% of the children in the lower primary schools and 41% of those in the upper primary schools do not belong to the appropriate age-groups 6-11 and 11-14 respectively.[7] Most of the school beginners join Grade I at the beginning of the session but admissions may continue throughout the year, especially in rural areas.

The Education Commission (1964-66) recommended that the schools should be ungraded during the first four years of primary education. According to this system, the curriculum for all the school years is divided into graded units. Each pupil is allowed to proceed according to his own pace in different subjects: thus a child may complete all units of a particular subject in three years and six months, but he may take more than four years in completing all units in another subject. Various States such as Maharashtra, Gujarat, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh, Punjab, Mysore, Tamilnadu and Madhya Pradesh, are now conducting experiments to try out the ungraded school system but, generally speaking, primary schools in India are following the class/grade system.

Through the Second All-India Educational Survey, carried out in 1965, a wealth of information was collected regarding the types of primary schools and the status of primary education (see Table 2). No authentic data became available after this survey, but experience shows that the situation has, on the whole, remained unchanged.

II. Administration and control

In India, school education at the primary level is essentially a local body and State Government partnership. In urban areas the Municipal Committees or Corporations have been associated with primary education. In rural areas, the Panchayati Raj institutions, the Antarim Zila Parishad, the District Boards or the Town Committees are in charge of primary education. Thus there is a considerable variation in the administrative arrangements.

The reason for entrusting the local authorities with the administration of primary schools is that they succeed in evoking local interest and enthusiasm and effectively bring local knowledge to bear on the solutions of problems. Their financial contribution is not very large, but in the case of some richer municipalities it is quite substantial. Their main weaknesses, however, are the harassment caused to teachers through frequent transfers, and postings often being determined by local factions and politics.[9]

Table 2. Some types and numbers of primary schools, 1965[18]

Types of schools	Rural	Urban	Total
Incomplete schools:*	103 811 (25.26)**	5 029 (11.27)**	108 840 (23.89)**
Primary schools with			
- one teacher:	167 382 (40.72)	3 737 (8.37)	171.119 (37.55)
- two teachers:	117 131 (28.49)	5 010 (11.22)	122 141 (26.80)
- three teachers:	60 513 (14.72)	5 549 (12.43)	66 062 (14.50)
Middle schools with			
- one teacher:	14 619 (19.21)	1 021 (4.90)	15 640 (16.14)
- two teachers:	14 067 (18.48)	1 207 (5.79)	15 274 (15.74)
- three teachers:	15 563 (20.45)	2 198 (10.55)	17 761 (18.32)

* Some primary schools are a section of either a middle school or a secondary school.

** The figures in parentheses are percentages.

A. Schools

The schools must be recognized by the State Department of Education. But there are a large number of private primary schools which do not receive any grant from the State or the local bodies. Under the Constitution, private schools have a right to exist. However, the Education Commission (1964-66) suggested that the State should not interfere with the private schools, but that it should be compulsory for such schools to register whether they seek the aid or not.

The proposals for opening new schools are submitted by either the Education Department of the local bodies concerned or the State, for approval by either the General Houses of local bodies concerned or by the General Assembly. The need is identified on the basis of surveys of children in the compulsory age-group 6-14 and of the programmes for extension of cities and provision of schools in villages so that each child should have a school less than one mile from his home. The authorities responsible for opening new schools are the State Departments of Education or the local bodies as mentioned earlier. Some schools are also established and financed by the Union Ministry of Education under the scheme of Central Schools.

Existing schools are expanded, by adding new sections or by upgrading them, on the basis of demand due to increased enrolment or due to the setting up of some new residential neighbourhoods. Double shifts are allowed when there is shortage of space. Sometimes one shift is provided for girls and the other for boys. The approval for school expansion must be obtained from the local bodies or the State Departments of Education, which are responsible for the maintenance of primary schools, their administration and their organization in partnership with the local bodies.

B. Teachers

Vacancies are announced on the basis of proposed new schools and of sections to be added to existing schools, the heads of schools inform the Education Department about the anticipated vacancies. The Inspector of schools verify them and estimates are worked out. Names of qualified persons are obtained from employment exchanges or teacher training institutions or through advertisements. The selection of teachers is made through tests or interviews.

The authorities for appointment, payment of salaries, transfer and promotion of teachers are the Education Officers in the Education Committees of the local bodies and in the State Departments. Sometimes these powers are delegated to subordinate officers at the district or Panchayat level.

The teacher training institutes are run mostly by the State Departments of Education; some are private institutions. Agencies like the State Institutes of Education, the NCERT (National Council of Educational Research and Training, an autonomous body of the Union Ministry of Education) and some other such agencies also help in providing some kind of training, refresher courses and orientation to teachers in order to introduce innovative ideas and better instructional programmes.

C. Inspection and supervision

In the majority of cases, the office of the District Education Officer is responsible for inspection and supervision of primary schools. Even the schools run by the municipalities and District Boards are supervised and inspected by the representatives of the District Education Officer. However, in some States the schools which are run by the Panchayats are inspected by the Assistant Block Development Officers.

D. Financing of primary schools

The nationalized primary schools - as in Punjab and Haryana - are financed fully by the State Governments. The schools run by local bodies are financed partly from their own funds and partly through grants from the State Governments - the latter being as a matter of fact responsible for providing primary education. The Central Education Ministry also helps indirectly by providing grants for centrally sponsored schemes and other programmes like the supply of uniforms, mid-day meals, science equipment, work experience equipment, etc. In the case of private-aided schools, funds are also raised from the community for school buildings and other programmes. There is also a system of grants for primary education from the Central Government to the State Departments and from the State Departments to the local bodies.

E. Curricula, textbooks and teaching methods

The curricula and textbooks are prescribed by the State Education Departments for all primary schools in the State, but are actually prepared by specially appointed committees. Agencies like the NCERT also contribute by way of preparing suggestive curricula and model textbooks which some States may adapt or adopt, or use as guidelines for preparing their own materials.

III. Size of primary education

A. Enrolment

The enrolment figure for children in the age-group 6-11 in 1969 was 55.45 million (77.3%),and the target for 1974 is 68.56 million (85.3 %). Similarly the enrolment figure for the age-group 11 to 14 in 1969 was 12.27 million (32.5%) and the target for 1974 is 18.1 million (41.3%). The total percentage of enrolment of children of the age-group 6 to 14 in 1969 was 61.7 and it will become 69.8 during 1974. However, all the above percentages for 1969 and 1974 would have to be adjusted because they are based on earlier population estimates for 1971 and the intervening years between 1961 to 1971, and the actual population in 1971 was found to be less than had been estimated when the Fourth Plan was being formulated.

The percentage ratio between the enrolment of boys and girls along with other related statistics is given in the following table:

Table 3. Progress of enrolment at elementary stage

	Enrolment (millions of pupils)				Percentage of the corresponding age-groups			
	1951	1966	1969	1974 (target)	1951	1966	1969	1974 (target)
Grades I - V								
Boys	13.77	32.18	34.92	41.25	59.8	94.3	95.2	99.6
Girls	5.38	18.29	20.57	27.33	24.6	56.5	58.5	70.1
Total	19.15	50.47	55.49	68.58	42.6	76.7	77.3	85.3
Grades VI - VIII								
Boys	2.59	7.68	8.76	12.19	20.7	44.2	45.4	54.3
Girls	0.53	2.85	3.51	5.91	4.5	17.0	18.8	27.7
Total	3.12	10.53	12.27	18.10	12.7	30.9	32.5	41.3

Source: Third and Fourth Five-Year Plans, Planning Commission, New Delhi, India.

As regards girls, their enrolment in Grades I-V was 37.1% of the total enrolment in 1969, and 28.6% in Grades VI-VIII. The targets for 1974 are 40% and 32.6% respectively. The progress may be seen from the following table.[15]

Table 4. Enrolment of girls as percentage of the total enrolment

Year	Grades I - V	Grades VI - VIII	Grades I - VIII
1951	28.1	17.0	26.6
1956	30.4	20.3	28.9
1961	32.6	24.3	31.3
1966	36.2	27.1	34.6
1969	37.1	28.6	35.6
1974 (target)	40.0	32.6	38.4

B. Teachers

During the year 1965/66, there were about 1.5 million teachers in the lower and higher primary schools. It is estimated that in 1973-74, they will be 2.23 million, viz. 1.75 million in the lower primary schools and 0.48 million in the higher primary schools.[8]

During the period 1950/51 to 1965/66, women teachers in lower primary schools increased from 82,000 to 200,000 (or from 18 to 24 per 100 men) and in higher primary schools from 13,000 to 140,000 (or from 18 to 37 per 100 men).

There has been a phenomenal increase in the number of primary school teachers in the primary stage. It is encouraging to note that at the same time more qualified and trained teachers are increasingly replacing the underqualified and untrained ones: as against 882,000 trained teachers in lower and higher primary schools in 1951, there were 1,173,000 in 1968; the percentage increased from 58 in 1951 to 75.4 in 1968.[15] The following table indicates the general education level of primary teachers in 1965/66.[9]

Table 5. General education level of primary teachers in 1965/66 (estimate)

	Graduates and above	Completed secondary school and under-graduates	Not completed secondary school	All teachers
		In lower primary schools		
Men	7 100 (0.8)	430 650 (50.7)	412 250 (48.5)	850 000 (100)
Women	3 400 (1.7)	94 350 (47.2)	102 250 (51.2)	200 000 (100)
		In higher primary schools		
Men	23 500 (6.2)	212 200 (55.8)	144 300 (38.0)	380 000 (100)
Women	7 700 (5.5)	68 600 (49.0)	63 700 (45.5)	140 000 (100)

Note: The figures within parentheses indicate percentages of the total.

C. Schools

Along with the increase in the enrolment at the primary stage, there has been a substantial increase in the number of schools: from 223,267 in 1951 to 475,001 in 1968. During the Fourth Plan period (1969-74) some more primary schools have been established. The exact number of primary schools to-day will be indicated by the next survey that may be conducted during the Fifth Plan period.

D. Expenditure

For the universalization of primary education the outlay of expenditure increased from Rs. 850 million during the First Plan period to Rs. 2,347 million during the Fourth Plan period.[16] These figures include expenditure on pre-school education as well. The Government of India is proposing to invest about Rs. 16,000 million on primary education during the Fifth Five-Year Plan period.[8]

On the assumption that the average salary of a teacher (including allowances) is Rs. 200 per month and the teacher-pupil ratio will be 1:40 during the Fifth Plan period, the cost per pupil has been estimated at Rs. 80 per year at the lower primary stage. Similarly, on the assumption that the average salary (including allowances) of a teacher at the middle stage is Rs. 250 per month and the teacher-pupil ratio 1:35, the average annual cost per student in the middle school will be Rs. 120. Both these estimates assume that the non-teacher costs are roughly 25% of the teacher costs.[9]

IV. Medium of instruction

In the primary schools the medium of instruction is the regional language of the State with the exception that in Arunachal Pradesh and Nagaland the medium of instruction is English. There are indications that children who live in the tribal areas find it difficult, in earlier grades of the primary school, to follow instruction in the regional language of the State. Experiments are being conducted to introduce for the first grade textbooks in tribal dialects which are written in the regional script.

V. Procedures of evaluation and promotion of pupils

In India the examination procedures in the primary schools differ from State to State. By and large, annual promotion examinations are held in each primary grade in each State and Union Territory except in those few States where abolition of the system of detention is presently attempted. However, the examination at the end of primary education is conducted by the State Departments of Education, or by the Municipal Committees and Corporations in the large cities. Academic assistance and advice is provided to these authorities by the NCERT, the State Institutes of Education and the State Evaluation Units for the reform in the examination system.

There has been a growing realization in the country that the examination system at the primary stage is defective. It puts a premium on rote memorization. Those children who fail an examination are frustrated or, even worse, drop out. Keeping in view these baneful effects, the Education Commission (1964-66) suggested that there should be no written promotion examination at the end of each class in the primary schools. It recommended the introduction (already being experimented within several States) of an ungraded school system for Grades I to IV to enable the children to proceed according to their own pace, the administration of diagnostic tests and remedial programmes to identify the weaknesses of children and to remedy learning difficulties, and the use of cumulative record cards, standardized tests, observation schedules, etc. for the thorough evaluation of children regarding their day-to-day progress. The recommendation to abolish class-wise promotion written examinations at the primary level was supported by the Committee on Examinations in 1971 and by the Eleventh National Seminar on Elementary Education in 1972.[10, 5]

The States and the Union Territories are taking action on the recommendations made by the above-mentioned Commissions, Committee and Seminar. Although there are not yet perceptible changes in the examination system at the primary stage, the competent authorities are making efforts to introduce systematic evaluation procedures for assessing aspects of the personality development of pupils such as knowledge, understanding, skills, interests, attitudes, habits, personal and social traits, social and spiritual values, etc. Various opinions are expressed with regard to the usefulness of a public examination at the end of the primary stage. Such an examination is held in many States with a view to maintaining a uniform standard of achievement, but it is realized that it fosters the evil of rote memorization.

VI. Orientation of primary education

The post-independence era saw a gradual but steady reform in the curricula. The national leaders and various committees, commissions and seminars on primary education made recommendations to transform education. Basic education as propounded by Mahatma Gandhi was adopted as a national philosophy of education. Its essential principles were (a) to provide education through the mother tongue; (b) to correlate the curriculum with productive activity and social and physical environment; and (c) to keep contact with the local community. These principles related education to the life of the child and brought a shift from the three Rs and rote learning to the inculcation of useful habits, socially acceptable values and purposeful skills in addition to the traditional knowledge component of learning in the schools.

The Education Commission (1964-66) observed that "the destiny of India is now being shaped in her classrooms". After taking stock of the existing system and programmes, the Commission emphasized that education should: (a) be related to productivity; (b) strengthen social and national integration, consolidate democracy as a form of government and help the country to adopt it as a way of life; (c) hasten the process of modernization; and (d) strive to build character by cultivating social, moral and spiritual values.[9]

These national goals gave a new orientation to primary curricular programmes. Work experience, health education, social service, social studies, population education, creative activities, moral education and physical education, were given place in the primary school curriculum besides a strong base of language and mathematics. In view of the demands of the modern scientific and technological age, science education has been introduced right from the first grade. In the teaching of science more emphasis has been put on the process rather than on the content.

There has been a growing awareness that a rudimentary school-acquired knowledge of language or arithmetic or social studies does not greatly help a person. Man must be skilled in those aspects of productive work which enable him to lead a useful life and to contribute to the social welfare of his community. For this purpose work experience was introduced as an essential curricular component which, far from being mere toil, should imply meaningful, educational, realistic, forward looking and productive manual work.[1,2]

From time to time, the State Departments of Education have been engaged in the revision and upgrading of the primary school curriculum. In-service programmes through which teachers are shown how to improve instructional and evaluation procedures are under way. Some States have started crash programmes of in-service training for primary school teachers and headmasters. Most of the State Governments have taken over the responsibility of the production of suitable textbooks, the quality of which has considerably improved.

A special reference may be made here to the programmes of the National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT). This Council, an apex body in the field of education in India, has done creditable work in the production of model curricula in different school subjects, textbooks and textual materials, handbooks and guide books for teachers, criteria for evaluating the textbooks, science kits, prototypes of teaching aids, film strips, etc. The States and the Union Territories find these materials useful for improving the instructional programmes of the schools at all levels. Some States have adopted the curricula and other material whereas others have either adapted them or used them for improving their own material. The Council has also introduced key persons in the States and the Union Territories to innovations in curricula and to evaluation to enable them to disseminate new instructional practices among primary school teachers. The Council involves the teachers and the specialists of the States and the Union Territories in the preparation of curriculum materials so that they may be found appropriate by the users. The Council gets a feedback from the schools through several agencies like the State Institutes of Education or Councils of Educational Research and Training, the Primary Extension Service Centres in the States and the Offices of Field Advisers which the NCERT has itself established in the different States ; a continuous try-out of the curriculum material is done in order to improve it. In addition, the Council assists the States in evaluating their existing textbooks. The primary schools are given academic and financial assistance for conducting experiments and projects to evolve suitable instructional procedures. The four Regional Colleges of Education of the Council conduct pre-service and in-service programmes for the teachers. Finally, the Council is receiving assistance from Unesco, UNICEF and other organizations for launching effective science programmes in the country.

Thus, it may be seen that the quality of education at the primary stage is improving in India. However, the country still feels that it has a long way to go to achieve the national goals. The task is so big and the resources so meagre that whatever new idea is implemented, it dwindles after reaching a limited number of schools. In many States and the Union Territories, the qualitative improvement of education has remained marginal, particularly in the tribal belts. The effective pre-service and in-service training of the huge numbers of primary school teachers is a tremendous challenge. The lack of effective curricula, the poor equipment of schools, the lack of properly trained teachers, the inefficiency of inspection and supervision, the rigid promotional examination system in many States, and the high wastage and stagnation rates are some of the many factors which are the stumbling blocks in the path to progress in primary education.

VII. Resources for universal primary education

The Constitution of India provides for compulsory and universal education for every child up to the age of 14, which ought to have been fulfilled by 1960. Since independence, arduous efforts have been made to fulfil this constitutional obligation but the magnitude of the task and the lack of adequate resources have made it impossible to achieve so far.

At present, roughly 83% of the children in the age-group 6 to 11 and 37% of those in the age-group 11 to 14 are going to school. The Government of India has now decided that universal primary education should be provided to all children in the age-group 6-11 by 1975/76 and to those in the age-group 11 to 14 by 1980/81. For this purpose, the total enrolment at the lower primary stage (or age-group 6-11) will have to be increased from an anticipated 63.1 million in 1971/72 to 86.2 million by 1975/76, which means an average additional enrolment of 4.6 million as against an average enrolment of 2.5 million reached over the last ten years. At the middle school/higher primary stage (or age-group 11-14) the enrolment will have to be increased from 14.9 million in 1971/72 to 45 million in 1980/81, which implies an average additional annual enrolment of about 3.3 million as against that of 0.7 million reached over the last ten years.[8] Two basic problems that the country has been facing with regard to the universalization of primary education will be briefly discussed; they are the problem of enrolling all children in the age-group 6 to 14 in primary schools, and that of retaining children effectively in the school till they complete their education up to Grade VIII.

i) Problem of enrolling all children in the age-group 6 to 14

For the enrolment of children in the primary schools the following programmes are under way: pursuasion of parents to send their wards to the school; opening of a primary school within walking distance (one mile) from the homes of the children; supply of free textbooks, uniforms and mid-day meals to children with the help of the local community; introducing the double-shift system where there is a dearth of school buildings; opening a pre-school or attaching a pre-school class to the primary school as far as possible to ensure enrolment in Grade I; conducting adult literacy programmes so that the illiterate parents understand the value of education and willingly send their wards to the school; employing more and more women teachers so that girls will not hesitate to attend the school; introducing flexible school schedules so that children may be able to help their parents in the farm or home during harvesting and sowing season; introducing home science in the curriculum for girls to attract them to join the school; introducing 'Ashram Schools' in tribal areas; giving scholarships to deserving children in tribal areas; providing residential facilities to women teachers; making the school curriculum more effective and useful to attract children to the school, etc.[9]

All these efforts call for more teachers, school buildings, equipment and ancillary services. There is need for an improvement of in-service teacher education programmes, curricula, textbooks, and other allied matters. For these purposes huge funds are required. The Government of India is envisaging a provision of Rs. 15,750 million for the expansion and improvement programmes of primary education during the Fifth Five-Year Plan.[8]

The costs of the expansion programme at the primary and middle school stages would be as follows:

Item	Millions of Rs.
Salaries and allowances of teachers and contingent expenditure	8 250
Buildings	1 000
Equipment (excluding that for science and work experience)	200
Ashram schools (provided in the Social Welfare Plan)	-
Mid-day meals	1 200
Free supply of textbooks and stationery	800
Clothing and attendance allowances, etc.	370
Total	11 900

There is a possibility of saving of Rs. 2 billion during the Fifth Plan through the use of volunteer teachers. Thus the total cost for expansion will be Rs. 9,900 million.

The total cost of the qualitative improvement programmes at the primary and middle school stage would be as follows:

Item	Millions of Rs.
Work experience	1 700
Science education	290
In-service education of teachers	660
Establishment of new training institutions	110
Strengthening of existing teacher training institutions	200
Model primary schools	1 750
Improvement of selected schools	600
General improvement of schools	540
Total	5 850

The total cost of the quantitative and qualitative programmes in primary and middle school education would be Rs. 15,750 million (Rs. 9,900 million for expansion and Rs. 5,850 million for improvement). These figures may be treated as estimates only; they may change when the budget for the education sector is finalized by the Government. However, they do indicate the present trend in India of giving priority to primary education.

ii) Problem of the holding power of the schools

The second problem for universalizing primary education is that of wastage and stagnation. Of every 100 children that enter Grade I, only 40 reach Grade V and only 25 reach Grade VIII. The drop-out rates for girls are higher than those for boys ; the rates for the scheduled castes are even higher and those for the scheduled tribes are probably the highest.

Several research studies have been conducted to discover the causes of wastage and stagnation at the primary stage in India and a large number of action programmes have been implemented to reduce the rate of wastage and stagnation. Broadly the causes are economic, educational and social, but they vary from school to school and from child to child. The following are the major ones:

1. Heterogeneity of age-groups;
2. Fresh admission throughout the year ;
3. Irregularity of attendance;
4. A defective system of education;
5. Stagnation or failure;
6. Lack of emphasis on the teaching of reading ;
7. Lack of books and stationery for pupils;
8. Large classes (high pupil-teacher ratio);
9. Defective curricula;
10. Improper techniques of teaching in primary classes;
11. Parental indifference to education (lack of programmes of social education);
12. Lack of attracting and holding power of the school;
13. Incomplete schools and single-teacher schools;
14. Poor relationship between the educational system and the needs of the community;
15. Lack of improvement of the competence and of the social as well as economic status of teachers;
16. Ineffective or inadequate co-curricular activities in the schools;
17. Lack of motivation for learning in pupils;
18. Excessive involvement of the pupils in domestic work to assist the parents;
19. Ineffective inspection and supervision;
20. Lack of instructional material suitable for primary schools.

The Central and State Governments are taking steps to reduce wastage and stagnation. For example, the NCERT has launched a programme of intensive work with schools for reducing educational wastage in collaboration with the State Institutes of Education and Primary Extension Services Centres. For this purpose, two handbooks on educational wastage at the primary level, one for primary school teachers and the other for supervisors, have been prepared.[22,23] These handbooks indicate how the teachers and supervisors can estimate the existing wastage in their schools, how to determine its causes, what action programmes are needed for reducing it, how these programmes should be implemented and ultimately how to assess their impact. The States of Andhra Pradesh, Mysore, Gujarat, Uttar Pradesh, Rajasthan, West Bengal and Jammu and Kashmir have rendered these handbooks in their regional languages and have started intensive work in selected schools in collaboration with the NCERT. Some more States will be following this approach in the near future.

Other significant action programmes of the States and Union Territories are mentioned below:

1. Supplying mid-day meals and free textbooks and stationery to children in primary schools ;
2. Incentive awards to teachers for good work ;
3. Opening of pre-primary schools or classes ;
4. In-service programmes for teachers, headmasters, teacher educators and inspecting officers ;
5. Developing a model school in a block ;
6. Introducing an ungraded school system ;
7. Introducing better curricula, textbooks, methods of teaching and evaluation techniques ;
8. Appointing women teachers according to the need ; awarding scholarships to girl students as an incentive ;
9. Improving the programmes of single and two-teacher schools by introducing multiple class teaching techniques ;
10. Programmes for developing awareness in parents regarding the value of education ;
11. School improvement programmes for increasing the attracting and holding power of the school ;
12. Stipends to children from scheduled castes and scheduled tribes for schooling ;
13. Flexible school schedules to enable children to help their parents at home or in the farm, particularly during harvesting and sowing periods ;
14. Effective inspection and supervision of primary schools ;

15. Programmes for developing an awareness among teachers, supervisors, and teacher educators, regarding the seriousness of the effect of wastage and stagnation in the entire educational development of the country and their roles in tackling this problem.

VIII. A look forward

It is encouraging to note that, in spite of the odds, the country is striving forward by launching a comprehensive programme of expansion and improvement of primary education during the Fifth Plan period (1974-79).[8]

The Central Advisory Board of Education, on which the various State Departments of Education and experts in education are represented, has proposed to adopt a uniform pattern of 10 2+3 school and college education in all the States and Union Territories.[11] The two years of higher secondary education after ten years of schooling will have two streams: the first would prepare students for the university and include a number of elective courses; the second would be vocational and would prepare students for careers in agricultural, industrial and service sectors as well as for various kinds of self-employment. The NCERT has been requested to prepare draft curricula and textbooks for the entire school stage of twelve years so that the States may adopt them or adapt them according to their needs.

It is proposed to establish 5,000 model primary schools, one in each Community Development Block. A pre-school will be attached to each of them. Ten per cent of all primary and middle schools will be upgraded to the optimum levels.

Creches and pre-schools will be attached to primary schools as far as possible. The Government has set up a committee to look into the matter of pre-school education.[12] This Committee has submitted that integrated services combining education, health, nutrition and welfare are essential for the total development of the pre-school child and should receive high priority and adequate resources. It has also appealed to the Government and all concerned to promote programmes for the pre-school child as a matter of the utmost urgency.[12] The matter is receiving active attention. The NCERT in particular has already taken an initiative by way of preparing suitable materials for children and teachers of pre-schools, conducting in-service and pre-service programmes, etc.[21]

Efforts will be made to improve the facilities in every primary school at least to the minimum standard, as well as the curricula, textbooks, teaching methods and competence of teachers. Work experience and social service programmes will be implemented. Equipment will be supplied to the schools and teachers will be trained for implementing these programmes. For improving science teaching at the primary stage, equipment will be supplied to the schools and the science teachers will be trained through in-service programmes. A good scheme of continuous evaluation of children in place of annual promotion examinations will also be implemented.

During the Fifth Five-Year Plan, a multi-entry system will be introduced and part-time education is proposed to be started for those children who cannot afford to come to school for full-time education; and ancillary services like the supply of free mid-day meals, textbooks, stationery, etc. will be given due attention. The Government is also proposing to give a grant-in-aid of Rs. 1,000 on an average to each primary school in order to raise them to the prescribed minimum level.

As a result of all these efforts, a great revolution in primary education may be expected in India in the coming years.

Statistics of primary education
(public and private schools)

Table 1(a) Trends in primary school-age population and primary enrolment (Grades I-V)

(figures in thousands)

School year	Population of primary school-age (6 to 11 years) (A)	Total primary enrolment (Grades I-V) (B)	Enrolment ratio (%)	Annual enrolment increase (%)
1965/66	66 302	48 913	73.8	-
1966/67	67 505	50 016	74.1	2.2
1967/68	68 745	52 454	76.3	4.9
1968/69	70 018	54 157	77.3	3.2
1969/70	71 329	58 213	81.6	7.5
1970/71	72 678	59 252	81.5	1.8

Table 1(b) Trends in primary school-age population and primary enrolment (Grades I-VIII)

(figures in thousands)

School year	Population of primary school-age (6 to 14 years) (A)	Total primary enrolment (Grades I-VIII) (B)	Enrolment ratio (%)	Annual enrolment increase (%)
1965/66	100 327	59 890	59.7	-
1966/67	102 740	61 679	61.2	3.0
1967/68	105 017	64 564	61.4	4.7
1968/69	107 459	66 569	61.9	3.1
1969/70	109 969	71 523	65.3	6.9
1970/71	112 548	72 651	64.6	1.6

Sources for Tables 1(a) and 1(b):

Column (A): Census 1971, Annual Estimates of Population (Revised Series)

Column (B): Education in India since Independence, A Statistical Review. Ministry of Education and Social Welfare, 1972.

Table 2. Enrolment by grade and sex, school year 1964/65

Grade	Total enrolment	
	Both sexes	Girls
I	18 240 602	6 948 612
II	10 373 531	3 752 420
III	8 214 680	2 836 778
IV	6 425 247	2 103 893
V	4 964 247	1 524 406
Sub-total (I - V)	48 218 307	17 166 109
VI	3 934 377	1 084 669
VII	3 207 213	856 575
VIII	2 652 769	673 663
Total (I - VIII)	58 012 666	19 781 016

Source: Education in India (1964-65, Vol. II, Ministry of Education and Youth Services, New Delhi).

Table 3 (a) Trends in the teaching staff (primary schools)

School year	Total number of teachers	Number of female teachers	Percentage of female teachers	Pupil-teacher ratio
1965/66	944 377	180 315	19.8	39
1966/67	978 797	193 215	19.9	39
1967/68	1 005 846	203 414	20.0	39
1968/69	1 026 152	209 504	20.4	...
1969/70	1 204 044	274 481	22.8	...
1970/71	1 110 249	239 958	21.6	...

Table 3 (b) Trends in the teaching staff (middle schools)

School year	Total number of teachers	Number of female teachers	Percentage of female teachers	Pupil-teacher ratio
1965/66	527 754	138 529	26.3	32
1966/67	547 085	147 334	26.9	32
1967/68	550 950	150 303	27.3	33
1968/69	576 563	153 034	26.6	...
1969/70	614 663	176 763	28.5	...
1970/71	612 321	168 503	27.5	...

Table 4. Trends in the number of schools

School year	Number of primary schools	Number of middle schools
1965/66	391 064	75 798
1966/67	395 816	77 782
1967/68	398 951	82 924
1968/69	399 109	83 943
1969/70	400 397	87 827
1970/71	404 418	88 567

Sources for Tables 3 (a), 3 (b) and 4: **Education in India since Independence, A Statistical Review. Ministry of Education and Social Welfare, 1972.**

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Number 14, June 1973

PRIMARY EDUCATION IN INDONESIA

by Setyadi

Indonesia is currently seeking for alternatives to provide universal basic education for its **people** *through non-formal education rather than embark on large-scale expansion in the traditional pattern. Attempts have been made to improve the quality of teaching in the primary schools, and to make primary school teaching more relevant to the developmental needs of the country. In this effort, the Indonesian Government is inviting the participation of the parents, business and industry, and the community in general.*

I. The system of primary education

Indonesia does not yet have compulsory education. However, 80 to 85% of the children between the ages of 7 and 14 have already had some schooling. Although compulsory education is mentioned as a goal in the present Education Law, another law is needed to implement it. The entrance age according to the law is six, but most of the students enter school at the age of 7.

The duration of primary school in Indonesia at present is 6 years. Experiments are under way to extend basic education to 8 years, with the usual 6 years of primary schooling reduced to 5 years, and a reformed 3 years of junior high schooling as the upper primary school. At the present time primary schooling is from Grade I to Grade VI.

In the Education Law it is stated that no school fee nor payment for instructional materials is required. In practice, students are required to donate a small amount of money to help the school cover the minimal necessary expenses which cannot otherwise be defrayed by income from other sources.

The Education Law also stipulates the provision of physical education at all grades, elective religious courses, co-education and scholarships for the gifted but poor students.

The types of schools in Indonesia consist of public (government) schools, subsidized and unsubsidized private schools. There is one type of primary school over which the Ministry of Education has little control, that is the Moslem primary schools (Madrasah Ibtidayah) which are controlled by the Ministry of Religious Affairs. All primary schools, including the Madrasahs, are co-educational and graded. There are special schools for handicapped children, but their number is very small.

There used to be primary schools with only the first three grades. However, to-day these incomplete schools have all disappeared. Almost all of the primary schools now have six grades. A majority of them have one class for each grade. Only a small number have parallel classes, mostly at the lower grades. In practically every school there is one teacher for each class. Most of the principals have teaching assignments.

A. Administration and control

Administration at the primary level is dualistic. Educational facilities, equipment, supplies and teachers' salaries are provided by the Provincial Government, while curriculum and supervision are controlled by the Ministry of Education of the Central Government. At the provincial level the governor is represented by his education office (Dinas Pendidikan). The Central Government is represented by the office of the primary school supervisor (Kabin Sarpralub).

At the central level there is the Directorate of Pre-School, Primary and Exceptional (Handicapped) Education (Dit Sarpralub). This Directorate is one of the several Directorates within the Directorate General of Education.

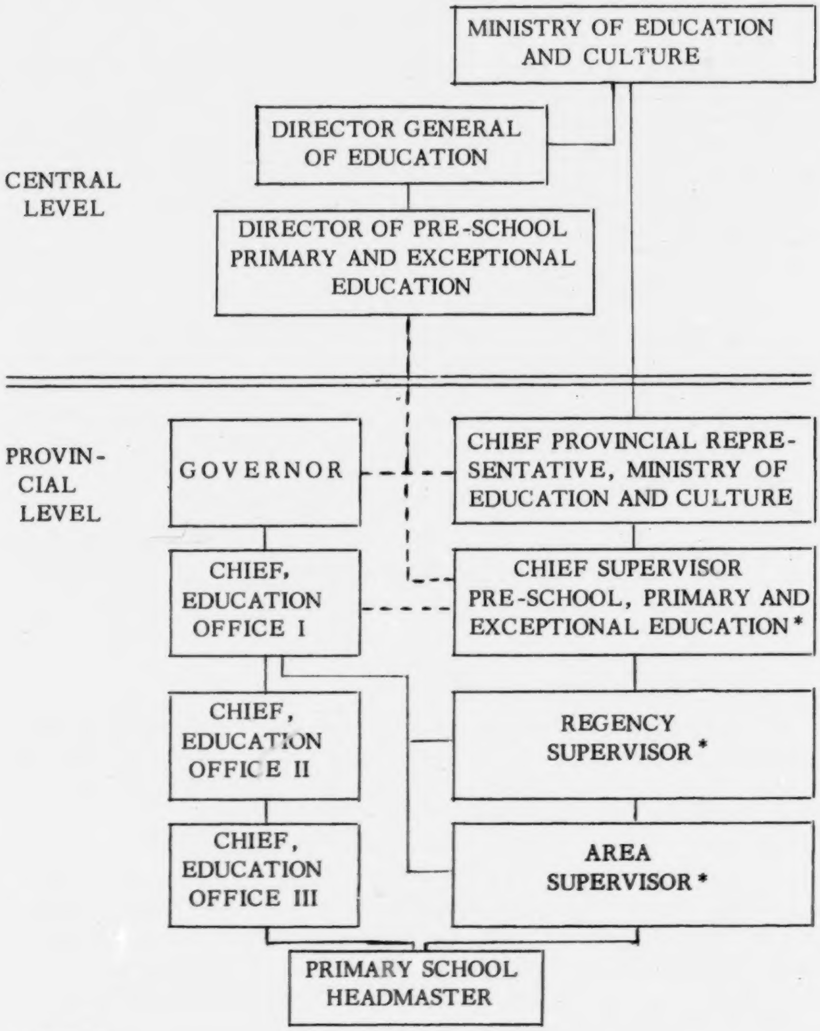
B. Size of primary education

According to the 1971 census there were 20,383,288 children in the 7-12 age-group. The total 1971 enrolment in both public and private primary schools, including Madrasahs, was about 16,374,000. The proportion of girls in the regular primary schools was about 42%. Information is not available about the proportion of girls in the Madrasahs.

The total number of primary schools was 78,412 of which 13,922 were Madrasahs. The total number of teachers for both types of primary schools was about 494,000. Of teachers in regular primary schools approximately 28% were female and about 60% had the required teacher qualifications. The proportion of both female and trained teachers were lower in the Madrasahs.

The pupil-teacher ratio was about 33:1 if part-time teachers and teachers of religious subjects are included. Part-time teachers are teachers at public and subsidized schools not appointed by the Government. They receive their salaries from the schools. Teachers of religion were appointed by the Ministry of Religious Affairs.

ORGANIZATION OF PRIMARY SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION
DIAGRAM


MINISTRY OF EDUCATION AND CULTURE
DIRECTOR GENERAL OF EDUCATION
CENTRAL LEVEL
DIRECTOR OF PRE-SCHOOL PRIMARY AND EXCEPTIONAL EDUCATION
PROVINCIAL LEVEL
GOVERNOR
CHIEF PROVINCIAL REPRESENTATIVE, MINISTRY OF EDUCATION AND CULTURE
CHIEF, EDUCATION OFFICE I
CHIEF SUPERVISOR PRE-SCHOOL, PRIMARY AND EXCEPTIONAL EDUCATION *
CHIEF, EDUCATION OFFICE II
REGENCY SUPERVISOR *
CHIEF, EDUCATION OFFICE III
AREA SUPERVISOR *
PRIMARY SCHOOL HEADMASTER

LEGEND:
________ Direct communication
- - - - - Indirect communication

* To improve communication, in many cases the chief supervisor is also the Chief, Education Office I; the regency supervisor also the Chief, Education Office II; and the area supervisor also the Chief, Education Office III. They retain the status of central government civil servants, acting at the same time as provincial civil servants.

Recurrent expenditure on education at all levels in 1971 was about 66 billion rupiah (US $1 is about 415 rupiah). About 44% of the total public expenditure was spent on primary education. The primary per-pupil cost was estimated at about Rp. 2,000.

C. Medium of instruction

The Indonesian language is used as the medium of instruction, usually beginning in Grade IV. A majority of schools use the vernacular language as the medium of instruction in the first three grades.

D. Procedures of evaluation and promotion of pupils

Since primary schools in Indonesia are graded, promotion to the next grade is determined by the performance of the pupils during the year. Reports of a pupil's progress are given three times a year on a ten-point scale. These reports are based on classroom tests given by teachers at regular intervals during the year.

A final school examination is taken by pupils at the end of Grade VI. A certificate of graduation is given to each pupil who successfully passes the final examination.

An entrance examination has to be taken before a student can enrol at the junior secondary level. This examination used to be given by the Central Government. However, it is now developed and administered by the Provincial Governments. Admittance to junior secondary schools is competitive in some schools, depending on the available places.

II. Policies, problems and experiments

The official statement of the goals of the development school (primary as well as secondary) is to develop and foster values and attitudes, knowledge, intelligence, skills of the students, the ability to communicate and the awareness of the ecology within the framework of the development of a modern Indonesian society.

In more specific terms, this general statement may be translated into the following goals of primary education:

a) the pupil should acquire the skills of reading and writing in Indonesian to a degree that these skills become permanent;

b) the pupil should acquire sufficient knowledge of social studies, sciences, and mathematics to understand his duties as a citizen, the Indonesian nationhood in relation to other countries, the scientific approach to practical problems, and the findings of science that affect his life;

c) the pupil should learn crafts that will (a) give him a respect for manual work; (b) train him in manual skills relevant to his future employment; and (c) create interest in certain skills that can be developed after he leaves school;

(d) the pupil should learn to improve and maintain his health by understanding the requirements of healthy living, and improving his home environment;

(e) the pupil should learn to respect and love Indonesia's best traditions and should develop attitudes and habits appropriate to the community in which he is to live, and to the occupation he is likely to take up. He must also be prepared for a world of change.[1]

A. Curricular reform

These new goals of primary education should have a significant effect on the curricular reform which is being tried out in several development school pilot projects. The major changes would move towards two directions. One would be in contents and methods of teaching, for example, modern mathematics, new approaches in science and social studies teaching, and more individualized instruction. The other would be in the teaching of crafts to develop favourable attitudes towards manual and co-operative work; and in the case of those who are not likely to continue their education, to lay the foundation of occupational skills.

B. Major problems of re-orientation

Curriculum changes are more difficult to achieve than other changes. Many changes in the printed curriculum have been made in the last 25 years; however, in most schools classroom practices remain virtually unchanged. If changes are to be really effective, they must be accompanied by new textbooks, other teaching materials and teachers' guides, by retaining of teachers and inspectors, by new types of examinations, and by changes in the teacher training institutions. If vocational training is to be introduced, sufficient equipment should be available, together with the recruitment and training of teachers. The latter may not have the usual teacher's qualifications, but they should certainly possess the right skills to teach vocational subjects.

A new curriculum usually takes a long time to become established throughout a school system. However, political pressure often does not allow enough time for sufficient preparation for the introduction of the changes.

Compared with the problem of effecting real changes in the classroom practices, other problems of orientation are not too difficult to solve.

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1. Adapted from the *National Assessment of Education Report on Primary Education (level III)* /Jakarta/ BPP (Office of Educational Development) 1972. unpublished draft.

C. Experimental operations

1. Definition of educational objectives

Educational objectives have not been stated with sufficient clarity to deduce curricular objectives from them. In 1971 a beginning was made to develop educational objectives in line with the objectives of the future 25-year development of the nation. Since there was no official 25-year plan, knowledgeable leaders from all walks of life were assembled to help give directions towards achieving these educational goals. Their recommendations were later developed and endorsed by the teachers as well as by the leaders of the society. Instructional and curricular objectives were deduced from the educational goals. The curriculum of the development school pilot projects was then developed on the basis of the curricular objectives.

This method of conceptualization was intended to give further assurance that the objectives were relevant to the needs of the development of Indonesia, without neglecting those of the children themselves.

2. The centralized state examinations

In the past, final State examinations, developed at the Central Ministry, proved to be less than reliable measures of quality. Norms were not comparable from year to year, and from place to place, because no standardized instruments were used, while scoring and grading were done at the local level.

In line with the policy of making education more relevant to local needs of employment and continuing education, individual schools (or school districts) are encouraged to develop and administer their own final examinations. Access to secondary education depends on entrance examinations developed by secondary schools.

Concurrent with the discontinuation of centralized examinations, efforts have been made to train teachers to develop tests with improved reliability and content.

D. Problems of scarce resources and rapid expansion

Since universal primary education is still a distant aim for Indonesia, resource allocations are intended to improve the quality of teaching at the primary school with only a minimal increase in the enrolment ratio.

The rapid expansion of primary education between 1950 and 1965 made it difficult to maintain the quality of teaching, due to shortages of funds and qualified teachers. In 1968, most of the schools did not have adequate facilities, equipment, textbooks and other teaching materials.

Although the qualifications of many teachers have improved through correspondence courses and part-time training to reach the level of a four- or six-year training beyond primary school, in general this additional training is not enough to enable the teachers to perform adequately.

During the period of the First Five-Year Development Plan (1969-1974), the Government has been trying to provide textbooks and other learning materials for more than 78,000 primary schools. The local Governments are also doing their best to improve educational facilities. Since the priorities of the Government during this Plan period are mainly in the economic sector, financial allocations to the education sector are not adequate enough to make good the shortfall in the quality of teaching. Only a small number of teachers can be fully retrained; only 60 million books can be produced and distributed free of charge to the students during the five-year period. With more than 15 million students, this number of textbooks means only about four books per child.

In the meantime, more and more children wish to enrol. Between 1968 and 1970, the average increase in annual enrolment was more than 3% despite the fact that the Government "froze" the number of appointments in government service.[1] Before 1968 even private (subsidized) primary schools were provided with teachers appointed and paid by the Government. At present it is difficult even for government schools to obtain government-appointed teachers. In many schools there are a number of teachers appointed on a temporary basis and on low remuneration, waiting for government appointment which may or may not come.

Supervision of teaching is also inadequate. School visits of supervisors are infrequent due to inadequate means of transportation. Only in a few places is the local Government able to provide supervisors with some means of transportation. Facilities such as libraries, workshops, learning equipment, are in very short supply. If books are not available, the usual practice is for the students to copy reading materials from the blackboard.

Since the Central as well as the Provincial Governments are not in a position to provide adequate means to primary schools, it has been the practice for over a decade for schools to ask for fees (or "compulsory donations") from the pupils, although education is supposed to be free. Recently the Government has decided to declare officially that the burden of building, maintaining and improving schools should be shared between the parents, the community, and the Government (both local and central). A decree to regulate school fees (or donations for the improvement of education) was signed by the Minister of Education. The decree is intended (a) to distribute the burden of paying the fees according to the level of income of the parents; (b) to regulate the utilization of the fees for salary supplements, supervision, scholarships, teacher retraining; and (c) to have better information of the total situation of educational finance. Though this regulation affects only secondary and higher education, some local authorities have used it for regulating school fees in primary schools as well.

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[1] This is an overall effort of the Government to reduce the size of its civil service and improve the efficiency of its performance.

E. Experiments in alternatives

The experiments mentioned in the following paragraphs are not focused on problems of resources of primary education alone. A large part of the activities are focused on generating and controlling the scarce resources for education in general.

1. Teacher training experiments

The distribution of textbooks in large numbers is supported by teacher training courses of short duration and the provision of easy-to-handle teachers' manuals. This wide-scale experiment uses various methods.

A small number of trainers are trained at the centre and in the provinces; these then train supervisors, who in turn train teachers. These training programmes are conducted for the purpose of establishing the use of textbooks. The instrument for the dissemination of improved teaching methods is the step-by-step manual provided to every trainer, teacher and supervisor. Another method is to utilize teacher training schools to do the retraining of primary school teachers. A different communication system had to be set up, involving the supervisors and provincial education officers, to enable the teacher training schools to function properly, since these schools are administered under a different directorate and have no organizational link with the provincial education office. A third method utilizes mobile teams of trainers to conduct retraining programmes in various places.

No report is yet available on the cost-effectiveness of each alternative, since the second and third type of experiments have just begun.

2. Experiments in local financing

As was mentioned before, many provinces are issuing different regulations for donations from parents. A study is under way to evaluate their effects on drop-outs, improvement of facilities, supervision, parental and teachers' attitudes.

Some regencies are experimenting with community and business support for school facilities, especially to provide the students with relevant vocational training. Some of the results, especially in Jombang, are very encouraging.

3. Improving the quality of teaching

Experiments in this area were intended to improve teaching in science, mathematics, social studies, languages, arts and music, and physical education, based on the existing curriculum. During the course of the experiments, however, it appeared that the present curriculum could be made more relevant to the needs of modern education by eliminating unnecessary memorization and drill, and by stressing training in problem solving. Individualized instruction has also been introduced.

One of these experiments at the Teachers' College in Malang has resulted in the reduction of the six-year primary programme to five years. Based on this result, a 5+3 year basic education programme is being experimented with. This eight-year basic development programme will eventually replace the 6+3 primary / junior-secondary cycles. It is too early to predict the outcome of this development programme, the main purpose of which is to make education at the primary and junior secondary level more relevant to the developmental needs of the society.

4. Experiments in planning

The First Five-Year Plan is basically a centrally conceived plan. Since it was translated into local programmes and projects by the central bureaucracy with minimal consultations with the local authorities, many changes in the programmes had to be made to meet local conditions. These changes have caused considerable delay in the implementation of the projects. Realizing this, the Government has experimented with regional educational planning in two provinces, with a view to improving communication within the province and between the province and the Central Government in the planning and programming of local projects.

At the central level a central planning agency, the Office of Educational Development, was established to improve integrated planning for the entire educational sector. All kinds of problems in planning are faced by this office. One of the most difficult is primary education planning. Within the First Five-Year Plan, there is practically no provision intended to affect primary education in any major way except for the production and distribution of primary textbooks and teachers' manuals. No central plan has been made to control or encourage expansion, to regulate resource allocation, administration, supervision, etc. The sheer size of the country and of the primary school population has made it difficult to direct centrally the development of primary education for the whole country. Attempts have been made at the provincial level to direct primary school development, but by far the most successful plans for primary schools are those made at the regency level. Experiments with the systems approach in planning have been carried out to integrate planning at all levels.

5. Experiments in educational radio

One of the alternative solutions to the problem of universal primary education in developing countries is the use of radio for teacher training, classroom instruction, and for non-formal education. Preparations are under way to introduce experimentally educational radio for teacher training and classroom instruction in four places, before using it on a large scale. It is planned to put the first broadcast on the air in June 1973. Certain doubts have been expressed on the cost-benefit of educational radio, and whether the country could bear the burden of a full-scale broadcasting in the near future. These questions are part of the problems to be investigated during the experiments.

Statistics of primary education
(public and private schools under the Ministry of Education and Culture)

Table 1. Trends in primary school enrolment

School year	Total primary enrolment[1]	Annual enrolment increase (%)
1966	11 577 943	
1967	11 800 951	1.9
1968	12 163 495	3.1
1969	12 802 415	5.3
1970	13 395 000	4.6
1971	[2]13 528 950	1.0

1. Not including enrolment in primary schools under the Ministry of Religious Affairs (about 2,845,000 pupils in 1971).

2. Estimation based on the already processed data of 8 provinces. Primary pupils in the age-group 7-12 are only 80% of the total primary enrolment. A small percentage are 6 year-old children, the others are in the 13-16 age-group. Total enrolment (all ages) related to the population in the age-group 7-12 years gives an enrolment ratio of 66.4% in 1971.

Table 2. Enrolment by grade and sex, and repeaters, school year 1971

Grade	Total enrolment		Repeaters (included in total)	
	Both sexes	Girls	Both sexes	Girls
I	3 246 948	1 363 718	551 981	...
II	2 841 079	1 250 075	397 751	...
III	2 705 790	1 136 432	270 579	...
IV	2 029 343	852 323	182 641	...
V	1 623 474	681 859	97 408	...
VI	1 082 316	397 751	10 823	...
Total	13 528 950	5 682 158	1 511 183	...
- Urban	2 435 211	...	256 901	...
- Rural	11 093 739	...	1 254 282	...

Table 3. Trends in the teaching staff and number of primary schools

School year	Total number of teachers[1]	Number of female teachers	Percentage female teachers	Pupil-teacher ratio	Number of schools
1966	271 883	81 762	30	43	53 233
1967	285 968	90 201	32	41	57 275
1968	308 687	96 050	31	39	60 023
1969	323 218	103 265	32	40	63 056
1970	347 500	110 400	32	39	64 040
1971	410 000	114 800	28	33	64 490

1. Before 1971, hourly teachers (non civil servant) and religious teachers were not included. Neither are included teachers of religious primary schools (about 84,000 teachers in 1971).

Table 4. Distribution of schools by type and size, school year 1971

	Number of schools
A. By type of schools	
1. Complete:	...
In complete:[1]	...
2. Urban:	...
Rural:	...
3. Public:	53 530
Private:	10 960
4. Single sex:	...
Co-educational:	...
5. One-teacher schools:	1 480
Two-teacher schools:	3 420
B. By size (number of pupils)[2]	
50 or less	1 290
51 - 100	5 800
101 - 150	10 320
151 - 200	14 830
201 - 250	14 190
251 - 300	9 020
301 - 350	5 160
351 - 400	2 580
401 - 450	1 300
451 and over	-

[1] Schools not offering all grades of the primary course.

[2] Estimation based on the already processed data from 8 provinces.

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PRIMARY EDUCATION IN IRAN

by Mohamad Borhanmanesh

According to Article 4 of the Compulsory Education Act passed by Parliament in August 1943, the Government was mandated to enforce compulsory education within ten years from the date of the enactment of the said Act. However, circumstances created by World War II and the economic pressures which persisted after the war prevented the Government from providing universal primary education.

During the recent years, the Government, after making certain that teachers and facilities were available, requested His Majesty to issue a Royal Decree declaring education compulsory in a number of specified school districts. So far education has been declared compulsory in 75 out of approximately 180 school districts. By the next school year, education will be declared compulsory in the remaining school districts.

I. The system of primary education

Primary education is free in public schools, but private schools operate on tuition fees received from parents. At present most upper and upper middle class families send their children to private primary schools.

Primary education normally takes five years, from Grade I to Grade V. The minimum and the maximum age for enrolling in the first grade are 6 and 10 respectively by the middle of the school year. The minimum entrance age to enrol in a private primary school is 6 by the end of the school year for which enrolment is contemplated.

Enrolment should normally take place at the beginning of the school year (23 September). However, enrolment during the school year is permissible provided the child meets the age requirements, and passes the placement examination for the grade he has applied for. At any rate, no child can enrol in or continue to attend an urban primary school when he reaches 15 years of age, or a rural primary school when he reaches 17 years of age.

A. Administration and control

The Minister of Education has eight deputies, four of whom are in charge of the four educational regions of the country. Each Regional Deputy Minister appoints Directors General of Education who are in charge of an area covering a number of school districts, and appoints school district superintendents. The school district superintendent (or head) appoints secondary and primary school principals and teachers.

B. Size of primary education, school year 1971/1972 (public and private schools, including Army of Knowledge pupils, teachers and schools)

Primary school-age population (6-10 years)		4 633 000
Total enrolment in primary school (all ages)		3 230 000
Proportion of girls in total primary enrolment		35 %
Primary enrolment ratio (excluding over-age pupils)		61.6 %
Total number of teachers		92 624
Proportion of female teachers		47 %
Proportion of trained teachers		61 %
Pupil-teacher ratio		35
Total number of schools		26 024
Recurrent public expenditure on education, all levels (million Rials)		3 200
i) proportion spent on primary education		34 %
ii) primary per-pupil cost	Rials	4 000

C. Types of schools

There are two types of ordinary primary schools:

(a) ordinary urban primary schools, numbering 4,453, which are complete;

(b) ordinary rural primary schools, numbering 10,749, which are mostly complete (about 20 % of these are incomplete schools).

Besides these ordinary schools, there are 10,556 Army of Knowledge primary schools which are incomplete. All primary schools are graded. All Army of Knowledge primary schools and about one out of every ten ordinary rural primary schools have one or two teachers only.

About 95 % of the urban primary schools are single-sex schools; but out of 10,749 rural primary schools, 6,942 or about 68 % are co-educational.

Out of 15,202 ordinary primary schools, 1,222 are private. Private schools are located in urban areas (there are only 34 private primary schools in rural areas) and the enrolment in private schools makes up 8 % of the total ordinary primary school enrolment. The Army of Knowledge primary schools numbering 10,556 are operated by the Government and have an enrolment of about 400,000 pupils.

Most schools are regular, but there are some special primary schools as shown below:

	No. of schools	No. of pupils
Schools for the retarded	22	700
Schools for the delinquent and maladjusted	2	13
Schools for the blind	6	92
Schools for the dumb and deaf	21	414
School for the handicapped	1	8
Schools for the gifted	3	119
Total	55	1 346

The medium of instruction is **Farsi** in all primary schools, except in a few schools run by foreign missions in Tehran and in other major cities.

D. Procedures for evaluation and promotion of pupils

Primary school pupils are evaluated on the basis of periodic examinations which are administered four times a year in December, March, June and September. The grading system is zero to 20. A pupil should have an average of 10 and no more than one or two courses with scores below 7 in the June examinations. Those whose mark average is at least 10 but fail in individual courses are given a chance in September for re-examinations in the courses they have failed. Those who fail again are not promoted to the next grade.

Primary school examinations are internal and are set by the teachers of each school under the supervision of the primary school principal, except for the final examinations at the end of Grade V which are external and prepared by the responsible bureau in the office of the school district superintendent.

II. Resources for universal primary education

A. Major problems

(a) Financial resources. This is a problem at the level of the Central Government. Iran is a fast developing country and each year the national budget is higher than the year before. However, public services other than education have their claims too. Therefore in any single year the financial requirements for public primary education exceeds the resources.

(b) Recruitment of teachers. About 60 % of the population of Iran still live in about 50,000 scattered villages. It is very difficult to recruit teachers for these villages, and particularly so for those which are remote from major cities.

(c) The number of suitable primary school buildings. The rapid expansion of primary education has created an acutely felt need for additional primary school buildings. The scarcity of land in the major cities and the lack of building materials and technical know-how in the villages are but two aspects of this problem. Many primary schools are housed in rented buildings not constructed for educational purposes, and many are badly in need of repair or remodelling. According to some educational authorities, the lack of suitable school buildings has already slowed down the normal expansion of primary education.

(d) Outdoor space. This problem is most acute in large cities where land is extremely scarce. The outdoor space is far from meeting the minimum standard set by specialists.

(e) Instructional equipment and materials. Primary education is still too labour-intensive, particularly so when considering the great advances in the area of educational technology.

B. Some large-scale or experimental operations undertaken by the Government

In order to solve the problems mentioned above, the Government has taken the following measures:

(a) The Regional Educational Councils. To alleviate financial problems, building shortage and the difficulty of teacher recruitment, the Regional Educational Council Act was passed in 1960, the basic aims of which are to decentralize educational administration, to delegate more authority and responsibility to Regional Councils, and to encourage local interest and support for education.

In accordance with this Act, an Educational Council has been formed in every school district, consisting of the following members:

i) the chairman of the City Council
ii) the head of the Public Finance Bureau
iii) the Mayor
iv) a college professor (if there is a college in the district)
v) a representative of the Chamber of Commerce
vi) a medical doctor nominated by the local Health Association
vii) a representative of the Village Cultural Centres nominated by the Bureau of Land Reform
viii) a principal of a high school or a teacher training school
ix) a primary school principal
x) the superintendent of the school district, who will serve as the Secretary of the Council
xi) two to seven members (according to the population of the school district) elected by popular vote.

The Regional or District Educational Council does not operate schools, but acts as a legislative body empowered to approve or ratify the policies and procedures proposed by the District Superintendent. Specifically the Regional or District Council performs the following functions :

i) to undertake educational planning for the district;
ii) to approve the budget presented by the District Superintendent;
iii) to exercise the authority delegated to the Regional Educational Council by the Higher Council of Education;
iv) to recruit temporary teachers with the funds provided from local sources of revenues;
v) to propose a local school tax to the City Council for the construction of primary school buildings and implementation of compulsory education.

(b) Establishment of the Army of Knowledge. In order to partially solve the problem of recruiting teachers for remote villages, His Majesty decreed that boys and girls who reach the age of military service could and in a sense should teach in remote villages as part of their military service. The Army of Knowledge has been in operation for the last 8 years, and undoubtedly many village boys and girls owe their skills in reading, writing and arithmetic to the efforts of the Army of Knowledge teachers. In the 1970/71 school year, a total of 15,941 young men and women (12,655 men, 3,286 women) served as the Army of Knowledge teachers, teaching 412,792 pupils (334,184 boys, 78,608 girls).

(c) Construction of low-cost rural school buildings. In order to partially remedy the acute shortage of rural primary schools, a Government-affiliated organization initiated a massive campaign to obtain voluntary contributions of the people to a fund designated for the construction of 2,500 primary school buildings. Each school building is estimated to cost about 300,000 rials (approximately $4,000). The success of the campaign was beyond expectation. The people's attention was directed to the importance of educational problems.

(d) Textbooks and other books in the language of instruction. There has been a definite progress in this area. Illustrated and functional textbooks along with teachers' guides for each textbook are prepared by the Ministry of Education.

Statistics of primary education
(public and private schools)

Table 1. Trends in primary school-age population and primary enrolment

School year	Population of primary school age[1]	Total primary enrolment[2]	Enrolment ratio (%)[3]	Annual enrolment increase (%)
1965/66	4 308 000	2 548 000 (13 %)	51.3	
1966/67	4 420 000	2 631 000 (12.7 %)	52.0	3.3
1967/68	4 535 000	2 845 000 (12.2 %)	55.0	8.1
1968/69	4 654 000	3 046 000 (11.8 %)	57.7	7.1
1969/70	4 794 000	3 237 000 (11.7 %)	59.6	6.3
1970/71	4 926 000	3 416 000 (11.6 %)	61.3	5.5
1971/72	4 633 000	3 230 000 (11.6 %)	61.6	7.3
1972/73	4 767 000	3 494 000 (11 %)	65.2	8.2

1. Prior to 1971/72 the primary school age-group was 6-11 years. Beginning 1971/72, it is 6-10 years.
2. The figures in parentheses indicate the proportion of over-age pupils.
3. Over-age pupils have been excluded for the calculation of the enrolment ratio.

Table 2. Enrolment by grade and sex, and repeaters, school year 1971/72

Grade	Total enrolment		Repeaters (included in total)[1]	
	Both sexes	Girls	Both sexes	Girls
I	821 985	296 531	105 300	34 660
II	696 171	245 629	93 980	28 470
III	613 327	220 467	61 760	18 390
IV	551 173	199 339	45 090	15 230
V	547 515	183 855	44 570	13 570
VI	709	103	-	-
Total primary	3 230 880	1 145 924	350 700	110 260
- Urban	1 693 797	768 641	187 060	77 850
- Rural	1 537 083	377 283	163 640	32 410

1. The number of repeaters has been estimated on the basis of the latest survey in 1968-69.

Table 3. Trends in the teaching staff and the number of schools[1]

School year	Total number of teachers	Number of female teachers	Percentage female teachers	Pupil-teacher ratio	Number of schools
1968/69	71 407	31 938	44.7	38.5	15 556
1969/70	...	...	...	...	15 815
1970/71	75 204	37 033	49.2	39.9	15 202
1971/72	[2]72 522	38 004	52.4	37.5	15 348

1. Excluding the Army of Knowledge teachers and schools.

2. The seeming decrease is due to the fact that starting with 1971/72 the primary level includes Grades I to V only instead of I to VI.

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ELEMENTARY EDUCATION IN JAPAN

by Naoki Onodera

Japan has a hundred year old history of elementary education dating from the promulgation of the Government Order of Education in 1872, by which an elementary school system was established for the first time. The ratio of school-age children enrolled in elementary schools now stands around 99.9%, which places Japan among countries which have achieved universal elementary education.

It is recognized that quantitative achievement in terms of enrolment is not enough; there are still many problems to be solved regarding the qualitative aspects of elementary education, such as: what measures should be taken to ensure equal opportunity in a system of education which is institutionally open to all the people; what types and forms of school organization, educational contents and teaching methods would be most appropriate in order to give education according to the individual pupils' ability and aptitude.

I. Outline of the elementary education system in Japan

A. Characteristics of elementary education

Elementary education in Japan is provided in kindergartens and elementary schools. Elementary school education is compulsory, while kindergartens are established for the purpose "of caring for children and of providing an appropriate environment to promote the development of their mind and body", for the pre-school children aged 3, 4 or 5. Elementary schools are governed by the School Education Law promulgated in March 1947, which defines their goal as being "to provide elementary general education to children between the ages of 6 and 12 according to the stages of their mental and physical development". With regard to the content and characteristics of the elementary general education, the Law prescribes a number of detailed objectives.

B. Compulsory elementary education

Elementary education is compulsory in the elementary schools, and its duration is six years.

The fundamental regulations on compulsory education in Japan are derived from the Constitution, in accordance with the provisions of Article 26 of which "all people shall have the right to receive an equal education correspondent to their abilities, as provided for by law. All people shall be obligated to have all boys and girls under their protection receive general education as provided for by law. Such compulsory education shall be free". The Fundamental Law of Education sets forth in Article 4 that "the people shall be obligated to have boys and girls under their protection receive nine years of general education. No tuition fee shall be charged for compulsory education in schools established by the State and local public bodies".

Further, with regard to the establishment of elementary schools, the School Education Law sets forth in Article 29 that "each city, town or village shall establish elementary schools sufficient for admitting all school-age children living within its boundary". With regard to the school attendance, parents are obligated, by virtue of Article 22 of the School Education Law, "to send their children to the elementary school, or to the elementary department of a school for blind, deaf or handicapped children, from the school year which begins after the children attain six years of age to the end of that school year in which they attain twelve years of age". If children are unable to attend school on account of their parents' financial difficulties, the city, town or village shall give necessary aid to them, as stipulated in Article 25 of the same Law.

The question of child labour is very closely related to compulsory school attendance. In order not to hinder school-age children from attending school, legal provisions are made in the Labour Standards Law so that "minors under 15 years old shall not be employed as workers".

C. School administration and control

Every city, town and village thus has a duty to establish elementary schools. In addition, the Central Government and private individuals are legally empowered to do the same; in reality, such national or private elementary schools are very few. About 99 % of the elementary schools are established by public bodies, and only a few of these are attached to national or private universities.

In Japan, administrative authority over a school is exercised by its establisher as defined in Article 5 of the School Education Law. Municipal, town and village elementary schools are under the direct administration and control of the respective municipal, town and village Boards of Education. The management of these schools is conducted with guidance and advice from the State and prefectural Boards of Education given through the respective municipal, town and village Boards.

Each municipal, town or village Board of Education sets down "School Administration Regulations" in order to administer the schools under its responsibility. Such regulations usually cover the following matters:

i) facilities and equipment

ii) teaching staff

iii) classrooms

iv) educational activities

v) use of teaching materials and teaching aids

vi) school holidays.

As is clear from the above, elementary schools in Japan are administered in accordance with national laws and Government ordinances, and rules and regulations of local public bodies.

D. Types of schools

Elementary schools in Japan are responsible for providing the first six years of the nine-year compulsory education, and every child who has completed the elementary course is to be enrolled in a lower secondary school, which provides the latter part of compulsory education. This is different from the pattern before World War II, when most children started their working life as soon as they had completed elementary schooling.

With regard to co-education, the Fundamental Law of Education prescribes in Article 5 that "men and women shall esteem and co-operate with each other. Co-education, therefore, shall be recognized in education". By virtue of this stipulation which was set forth after World War II, co-education was established, even though it had already been in existence in some schools.

The size of elementary schools is prescribed by the Enforcement Regulations of the School Education Law, as follows: "the number of classes in the elementary school shall normally be not less than 12 and not more than 18. This shall not apply, however, where special circumstances arise from local or other conditions". In reality, however, the number of classes in elementary schools differs according to the variety of conditions in the respective municipalities, and ranges from one to more than 18 classes. At present, small-sized elementary schools are gradually decreasing as a result of the school integration policy. The standard number of pupils in one class is 45.

E. Teaching content in elementary schools

In Japan, the teaching content in elementary education was drastically reorganized after World War II. The present content is in use since 1971, a preparatory period having been devoted from 1968 to the revision of the course of study.

As defined by Article 24 of the Enforcement Regulations of the School Education Law, the curriculum of the elementary school consists of such subjects as Japanese language, social studies, arithmetic, science, music, drawing and handicraft, home-making and physical education, moral education and special curricular activities. The Enforcement Regulations also lay down the standard number of teaching hours for each subject including moral education for each grade, and the total number of teaching hours. In addition, they provide that "the curriculum of the elementary school shall be based on the course of study for the elementary school which the Minister of Education will make public separately as a standard for the curriculum" (Article 25); the course of study is issued in the form of a Notification of the Ministry of Education, in which are prescribed the general principles of curriculum organization, the objectives of and the teaching content for each subject and special curricular activity, the points to be emphasized in teaching activities, etc.

With regard to teaching materials, which include textbooks and other supplementary materials necessary to achieve better educational effects, Article 21 of the School Education Law provides that "the elementary school shall use textbooks authorized by the Minister of Education, or those of which the Minister of Education holds the copyright". A system has been established for free distribution of textbooks to pupils receiving compulsory education.

Any supplementary teaching materials may be used in elementary schools if they are good and suitable for teaching in those schools, but the school principals are required to notify their Board of Education in advance or obtain the Board's approval, in accordance with the regulations set down by the Board. This is necessary because the educational value of such materials, the economic conditions of the parents in specific areas, etc., must be carefully taken into consideration.

II. Resources for expansion

The enrichment and expansion of elementary education are extremely important to ensure that children are provided with fundamental principles of good citizenship, and also to accelerate the development of secondary and higher education. In referring to the question of resources, however, focus has been placed mainly on the teaching staff, facilities and equipment.

A. Teaching staff

In order to ensure the qualitative improvement of elementary education, one of the essential factors is to obtain well-qualified teachers, because education is given daily in schools through human contact between the teacher and the pupil. Therefore, in order to recruit excellent personnel into the teaching profession, a system should first of all be established under which teachers are guaranteed adequate working conditions and compensation to enable them to concentrate on educating children.

1. Government subsidy towards teachers' salaries and allowances

Most of the elementary schools in Japan are established by cities, towns and villages, and teachers in these schools are public officials of the respective public entities. Therefore in principle it is the responsibility of the respective municipalities to bear the cost of compensations for the teachers of these schools. However, in order to ensure equal opportunity of compulsory education and maintenance and further improvement of it, in accordance with the principle of free provision of compulsory education, one-half of the expenses for the compensations for the teachers of schools established by cities, towns and villages is borne by the respective prefectural governments, which are subsidized by the Central Government. Besides, Article 25-5 of the Special Law for Teaching Public Officials specifies that the amount and type of compensation for these teachers shall not greatly differ from those for the teachers of national schools.

In parallel with this system, the right to appoint teachers to elementary schools established by cities, towns and villages belongs to the prefectural Board of Education, which facilitates the exchange of teachers at the prefectural level between the various cities, towns and villages. These systems have so far proved most effective, since there has been no meaningful differences in the quality of teachers among local entities, which might have arisen from differences in the financial situation of the latter. Moreover, teachers' salary scales are annually revised to maintain them at approximately the same level as that of other public officials.

2. Increase of teaching force

In order to improve the quality of education, the recruitment of a sufficient number of teachers is no less necessary than the improvement of their salaries and the availability of well-qualified educational personnel. The standard number of teachers in a public elementary school in Japan is based on the size of the school (i.e. the number of classes) and other elements. This standard number of teachers has been revised, as has been the standard size of classes. The average pupil-teacher ratio in the elementary school in 1971 was 25.6. The Third Five-Year Plan (1969-1973) envisages to increase the number of teaching staff in the compulsory elementary schools by about 28,500 teachers.

Efforts to increase the number of teachers raise two questions: the first is the relation between the standard size of classes and the number of teachers. As stated earlier, the number of teachers is based in principle on the number of classes in a school. At present, the maximum number of pupils per class is 45. Therefore, in improving the standard number of teachers, the problem arises of determining how many pupils there should be in a class.

The other question is related to financing. As was earlier mentioned, one-half of the expense for compensation of teachers in compulsory public schools is borne by the Government. Therefore, the amount of the Government subsidy for this purpose constitutes a relatively high percentage of the national budget for education; for example, in the fiscal year 1972, it amounted to 49.5% of the total budget of the Ministry of Education. Consequently, a larger amount of the budget is required when the standard number of teachers is improved.

3. In-service training of teachers

It is the duty of the teachers to keep themselves up-to-date with constant study and training. The administrative authorities are therefore required to provide teachers with training opportunities. The major emphasis is laid on in-service training. Various training courses and seminars are conducted, for example "training courses for the newly employed teachers" organized for the purpose of making teachers aware of their important responsibilities; "training seminars for the teaching staff" organized with the aim of studying various problems related to school administration and teaching activities for school principals and head teachers; "study seminars on curriculum" organized for discussions and studies relating to the application of the curriculum; and training courses on other specific subjects.

As part of the in-service training of teachers by utilizing facilities offered by universities, a system has been instituted by which elementary school teachers may attend courses at national universities for a fixed period. Furthermore, assistance is given by the Government to organizations concerned with educational research for the promotion of spontaneous study by teachers.

In order to develop the youths into able citizens with a deep sense of international understanding, teachers are expected to be persons of deep insight and broad international outlook, and to take pride in their profession. From this point of view, the Government provides assistance to prefectural Boards of Education for sending school principals and teachers abroad every year.

B. Facilities and equipment

1. Facilities

During the period between World War II and mid-1950s, elementary education in Japan was faced with a serious shortage of classrooms, resulting from war damages on the one hand and the so-called "baby boom" just after the war on the other. However, with the efforts of the Government and local public entities, this serious problem was gradually solved in about a decade, and nowadays the main emphasis is put on the qualitative improvement of facilities. As regards the school building area per pupil, the statistics show that the situation has steadily improved and this area in elementary schools was $5.56m^2$ as of May 1972. According to the classification by mode of construction, the data shows that in 1972 the floor area of wooden buildings constituted 49 % of the total floor area of elementary school buildings. This figure, compared to that of a decade ago, represents a sharp reduction of wooden buildings, which are being replaced by reinforced concrete buildings. Improvement of both ordinary and special classrooms has been remarkable. Special classrooms for science and music are provided in most of the elementary schools, while those for arts and handicrafts and for home-making are still lacking. With regard to the facilities for physical education in elementary schools, marked progress has been achieved through a large amount of Government subsidy, even though the level of achievement in this respect is not as high as that of school buildings. As of 1973, 74 % of the public elementary schools owns gymnasiums, while swimming pools are available in 44.3 % of these schools. A plan is now under way to provide swimming pools in all the schools with more than 300 pupils by the end of March 1974.

In relation to school facilities, one of the serious problems which Japan faces to-day in the field of elementary education is to provide education in the densely-populated industrialized areas and the sparsely-populated rural areas at the same time.

As side-effects of the so-called "income-redoubling policy" and the "rapid economic growth policy" in the 1950s, which have brought about rapid social and economic development, a wide movement of population has taken place, which caused a serious problem in the field of education. The increase or decrease of population in a community has a direct bearing on the number of pupils, of classrooms, of teachers and of schools. In the densely-populated industrialized areas, over

11,370 ordinary classrooms were needed for public elementary schools in 1972. In order to meet this demand, immediate measures have been taken, such as construction of prefabricated low-cost classrooms, conversion of special classrooms to ordinary ones, temporary utilization of auditoriums and gymnasiums as classrooms by means of partition walls, accommodation of more pupils in a class than the prescribed number, and introduction of the dual-shift system. In such industrialized areas, another serious problem for the authority is the difficulty in obtaining sites for schools.

In order to solve these problems, the Government has decided, under the Third Five-Year Plan for the expansion of public educational facilities launched in 1969, to facilitate the issuance of local bonds for the purchase of school sites and to give subsidies for the land arrangements on new school sites, in parallel with the priority measures for the construction of school buildings in the densely-populated areas.

On the other hand, in the sparsely-populated areas where a large number of inhabitants are moving out, serious difficulties are experienced in securing an adequate number of teachers, the attendance of pupils and an appropriate provision of health and sanitary facilities. The dual-shift system and the small-size schools due to the decrease of pupils are considered the most serious outcomes from the viewpoint of educational effectiveness. As a measure to solve these problems, the "Law for emergency measures for sparsely-populated areas", adopted in April 1970, stipulates the raise of governmental aid from one-half to two-thirds of the costs for the construction or extension of school buildings, including gymnasiums, and of teachers' houses necessitated by the consolidation of small-size schools in such areas.

2. Teaching materials and equipment

In order to expand compulsory elementary education, it is important to alleviate the burden of educational expenditure which falls on the parents. In Japan, textbooks used by elementary school pupils are provided free with a view to implementing the ideal of the free provision of compulsory education written into the Constitution.

Furthermore, with regard to the teaching materials and equipment used in the compulsory elementary schools, standards are prescribed by the Government in order to lighten the burden of educational expenditure borne by parents, on the one hand, and to make these schools fully equipped with necessary teaching materials and aids, on the other. For this purpose, a ten-year plan for equipping schools systematically with required teaching materials is being implemented since 1967.

In the future, major efforts will be made to promote the introduction of teaching machines resulting from the development of educational technology.

C. Improvement of school attendance

As was earlier mentioned, the enrolment ratio in the elementary schools in Japan stands at 99.9%. The Government has endeavoured to provide an equal opportunity to compulsory elementary education; for example, under such laws as "Livelihood Protection Law", "School Education Law", and "Laws concerning Government Assistance for the Encouragement of School Attendance of School Children and Pupils with Financial Difficulties", various measures have been taken to help children of low-income families to attend school. Those pupils whose families apply for assistance under the Livelihood Protection Law, or in similar situations, are provided with aid to cover the expenses for school supplies, transportation, materials needed for school attendance, school luncheons, school excursions, medical treatments, etc.

III. Orientation of elementary education

Many countries are now taking serious consideration of the orientation of their elementary education. Indeed these countries, in particular the developed ones, are fully aware that all levels of education, not only elementary but also secondary and higher education, might become outdated as a result of the accelerated and complex industrial development; thus, the review of past and contemporary educational situations and the examination of the future reform of education has become one of their most important and urgent tasks. The United Nations proclaimed the year 1970 as the International Education Year, in order to encourage all countries to further the concerted efforts for the development of education, with due regard to the critical questions presented by the "World Conference on Education Crisis", in 1968, which took up, among others, the problem of the ability of the existing education systems to cope with or lead the development of society. Proposals advocated and initiatives taken by Unesco, in connexion with the International Education Year, have greatly stimulated all countries to prepare educational reform.

In 1967, the Minister of Education of Japan requested the Central Council for Education, which is an advisory body, to make a study of the basic policies for the integrated expansion and improvement of school education. After five years of careful examination, the Council submitted its report, in which it recommended the general orientation of educational reforms, from elementary to higher education, with emphasis on the objectives of education, the development of the school system, a curriculum reform, the improvement of teaching techniques and the development of kindergarten education.

A. Objectives of education

While the basic aims of education in Japan are clearly defined in the Fundamental Law of Education and the School Education Law, it is natural that the practical objectives of teaching vary according to the changes of time and society. The report of the Council described the proposed general objectives of education in the future society, as follows: "It is necessary in today's society for every individual to develop a strong personality in order to live an independent self-controlled existence. This strength does not come simply from acquiring various knowledge and skills. Rather it comes as the individual's personality develops to the point where he has the capacity to integrate his various abilities and talents in a meaningful whole. Education for the development of the personality should help people acquire the necessary abilities for building a satisfactory and autonomous life, for adapting themselves to social realities, and for creatively solving their difficulties. The Japanese people, showing tolerance for the values of others, should realize their national identity, and on the basis of the rules of democratic society and their national tradition, should contribute to the peace of the world and the welfare of mankind through the development of a distinct but universal culture".

The contemporary society is confronted with various issues; at the same time it is rapidly changing. In order to live in such a society, individuals are required to develop their independence and self-control, and the ability to deal with problems creatively. In this sense, the general objectives of education pointed out in the report may be very meaningful in considering the practical objectives of elementary education in the future.

B. Development of the school system adapted to the stages of physical and mental development

The present school system in Japan comprises pre-school education provided in kindergartens, compulsory education in elementary and lower secondary schools, upper secondary education in upper secondary schools, and higher education in universities and colleges. However, it involves many problems from the point of view of the development process of human beings. Particularly in connexion with elementary education, several questions may be asked, such as the following:

i) Is it necessary to re-examine the present system of division into levels of education, since there are very close similarities in physical and mental development between children in kindergartens and lower graders in elementary schools, and between upper graders in elementary schools and students in lower secondary schools?

ii) Are there questions as to the relationship between the present kindergarten education and elementary education?

iii) Is it necessary to re-examine the starting age of school education in view of the early growth of children these days?

iv) Is it necessary to examine further the possibility of ability development by means of an early education?

v) Is it necessary to examine the possibility of expanding the period of compulsory education to make it cover the period from kindergarten to upper secondary education, with a view to further educational opportunities?

In order to deal properly with these problems and to promote a gradual reform of the education system, the Central Council for Education proposed several practical measures in its report. Among them are the following:

i) experiment with ways to improve the effectiveness of primary education by establishing institutions which provide continuous education for youths from the age of four or five through what is now the lower years of elementary school;

ii) other experiments such as linking the upper grades of elementary schools with the lower grades of lower secondary schools and the upper grades of lower secondary schools with upper secondary schools.

The report recommended that these reforms be carried out in the form of a ten-year pilot project, and that a decision then be made about the advisability either to expand the new system to cover the whole country, or to institutionalize it in parallel with the present system, taking into consideration the results obtained from the pilot project as well as the different circumstances involved.

With regard to the expansion of the period of compulsory education, the Council concluded that "school attendance should be made compulsory only for education which is essentially needed by all the people, and only when its implementation does not run into serious obstacles in terms of attendance and finance". The Council expressed the view that the question of whether it was necessary or even desirable to make pre-school education compulsory should be decided upon in the light of the results of the preliminary stage in the pilot project.

C. Reform of curricula

In considering the curricula of elementary education in the future, it is necessary to assess in the first instance how school education has been carried out so far. It may be pointed out that school education in the past laid major emphasis on providing pupils with the knowledge and skills which were deemed useful to the society in accordance with the stages of economic development in Japan; and that it rather neglected to foster the ability and proficiency of individual pupils. To live in the future society, however, individuals are expected to develop their ability to the full, and are required on the one hand to show creativity and advanced knowledge and skills, and on the other to be men of comprehensive personality, able to live righteously in a prosperous society.

With regard to the reform of curricula, the report of the Council stated as follows : "The curriculum offered at each school level should be consistent and should aim at giving pupils the basic educational skills needed for living in the Japanese society as well as developing their individual, creative personalities. At the beginning the emphasis should be placed on the learning of certain standardized, fundamental, well-chosen essentials". It further emphasized the "promotion of consistency in the curricula offered from the elementary school to the upper secondary school; careful selection of curricular contents; and further examination of the classification of subjects taught, especially so as to improve basic education in the elementary school". A number of defects to be corrected were pointed out, for example : the present curricula are too extensive at the level where basic education should be emphasized; unnecessary duplication of curricula occurs between different school levels; and the physical strength of pupils is not developed in parallel with the general improvement in their height and weight.

The Council further explained the proposed measures mentioned above as follows : "Cultivation of fundamental abilities at the stage of elementary education is important. The role of Japanese language teaching to give students the basic ability to transmit their culture as well as to enable them to think, to express themselves, and to better communicate, should be emphasized, as well as the role of mathematics to give the students a basis for logical thinking. Particularly for the lower grades, it is necessary to design curricula which are better suited to the different stages of pupils' development without being confined to the current division of subjects".

In Japan, the reform of curricula has been conducted when needed, and evaluation has also been made regarding the improvement of their contents. For future improvement, further efforts should be made, with due consideration given to the recommendations presented by the Council for the selection and refinement in respect of the contents so as to bring about greater harmony and integration.

D. Improvement of educational techniques

Concerning the reform of teaching techniques, the Council stated in its report : "The success of education depends not on what is superficially studied, but on what is actually learned. In this learning process teaching skills and techniques are as important as the content and level of education offered. It is very important, therefore, to make the best use of teaching techniques which can be adopted to individual abilities and interests at each school level in order to ensure the attainment of educational objectives". For this purpose, the following measures were proposed:

i) In order to provide effective education which will be both in line with the stated objectives and suited to the individual pupil's characteristics, measures for more flexible class management such as small group instruction should be considered;

ii) In order to enable students to pursue their studies in a rational manner and in a manner suited to their individual characteristics, measures which increase opportunities for individual study should be considered;

iii) Measures to develop a flexible system with simultaneous tuition given to students of different grades should be considered, as this may be more effective than giving tuition to students of one grade at a time;

iv) Measures to allow exceptional students to skip some grades in high school and enter higher educational institutions at a comparatively early age should be considered.

With regard to the "small group instruction" and "individual instruction" mentioned above, intensive efforts should be made in order to promote education which will develop pupils' individual abilities and characteristics, though these methods have to a certain extent already been employed in schools. As for the so-called "non-graded system" and the "skip-grade system" mentioned in items (iii) and (iv) respectively, it seems to be very difficult to introduce them in elementary schools.

E. Expansion and improvement of kindergarten education

In Japan, the demand for kindergarten education has greatly increased recently, and the importance of infant education has been widely recognized. The Council therefore suggested the following points in order to expand and improve kindergarten education:

i) To declare that all five year-old children may be enrolled in kindergartens, and to make it the obligation of the municipal authorities to establish a sufficient number of kindergartens to achieve this objective. Financial aid from the national and prefectural governments will be necessary for this.

ii) Together with the above measures, to co-ordinate the geographical distribution of kindergartens so that both public and private kindergartens can adequately play their respective roles, and at the same time to take necessary financial measures in order to enrich the quality of kindergarten education and decrease its cost.

iii) To improve kindergarten curriculum on the basis of research on pre-primary education.

iv) To change from individually-operated kindergartens to incorporated kindergartens in as short a period as possible.

Consequently, the Government has worked out and is promoting a "Plan for the development of kindergarten education", aiming at providing ultimately kindergarten education to all children of four and five years of age.

IV. Measures taken in connexion with the new orientation of elementary education

(a) Reorganization of the administrative system

In line with the recommendations of the Council, the Ministry of Education is to put into effect a comprehensive reform of education. For this purpose, the Ministry initiated a series of reforms, starting with the reorganization of its own administrative structure in order to be able to implement the various measures proposed in the report as a long-term plan.

Firstly, the Bureau of the "Inter-Departmental Committee for the Promotion of Educational Reform" was set up in the Ministry under the chairmanship of the Permanent Vice-Minister of Education. An Educational Studies and Innovation Division was established in the Elementary and Secondary Education Bureau; its functions are to work out overall plans, conduct research and studies, provide assistance and advice, collect necessary materials and utilize the results obtained in regard to research and development of school systems, contents and methods of elementary and secondary education.

A Kindergarten Education Division was also established in the same Bureau with a view to ensuring an integrated administration of kindergarten education, as well as to formulating and executing a ten-year plan started in 1972 for promoting expansion and innovation in that field.

(b) Research and study on the reform of education

Among the recommendations of the Central Council for Education concerning study and research work towards innovation in elementary education are the following two proposals: (a) to enhance the educational effects in the infant period by providing children with continuous education in the same institution for a number of years from the age of four or five through the lower years of elementary education, and (b) to provide effective education at each school level by introducing different divisions in the linking of grades between elementary and secondary schools. Prior to the launching of these experiments, the Ministry of Education set up a committee consisting of researchers, educators and administrators, to make necessary studies in this respect.

With regard to the long-term educational planning which is one of the most important problems relating to future educational administration, a research group on long-term educational planning was established in order to work out the appropriate indicators for the estimate matrix approach which will be used as the basis for such long-term educational planning.

(c) Promotion of kindergarten education

In line with the Council's recommendations relating to kindergarten education, the Ministry of Education worked out in August 1971 a "Plan for the promotion of kindergarten education" which aims at achieving enrolment of all four-year-old children who wish to enter kindergartens by the beginning of the 1977 school year. Increased appropriations for facilities and equipment in kindergartens, and for assistance to needy families who have children of four and five years of age, were made in the national budget for the fiscal year 1972 in order to encourage kindergarten enrolment.

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PRIMARY EDUCATION
IN THE KHMER REPUBLIC

by Ho Tong Ho

Because of the war that has been rampant in the Khmer Republic since March 1970, so many upheavals have occurred in all fields, and particularly in education, that the present situation should only be seen as temporary. Fighting, destruction and insecurity have disorganized a major part of what had already been accomplished and have thoroughly modified its form and structure. According to reliable authorities, the situation has suffered over 30% disturbance. As a matter of fact, the post-war rehabilitation plan has as its first goal that of re-establishing primary education in its pre-war state, prior to initiating any development programme. We therefore consider that, in order to correctly inform our readers, we should turn to the period preceding these events, i.e. before 18 March 1970.

I. The system of primary education

A. Administration

1. General principles

Khmer public primary schools are subject to the educational regulations embodied in the Ministerial Decree No. 847 (30 March 1967) which states that they should be (a) undenominational: they do not offer religious education and admit children of all faiths; (b) free: pupils do not have to pay any fees; (c) co-educational: boys and girls are enrolled together, and their staff comprises women as well as men teachers; (d) open to all children: regardless of race and nationality as long as they agree to follow the official syllabus.

The question of compulsory attendance has been debated for a long time now. Conditions were laid down by several Royal Orders (10 November 1911, 11 April 1912 and 19 October 1916) and also in Article 469 of the Penal Code. Patterned from those Orders, the educational regulations state that "Parents are bound to send all their school-age children to school; those who do not, or who refuse to do so without

valid reasons, will be punished as provided by law". However, because available means are insufficient and a thorough study of the problem has yet to be done, compulsory schooling has never been effectively accomplished, although huge efforts have been made to enrol as many children as possible.

2. Inspection and control

The administration and inspection of public primary schools at the national level are ensured by the Minister of National Education through the Directorate of primary education situated at Phnom-Penh. The Directorate includes both administrative and technical offices. At the provincial level this work is done by 27 Primary Inspectorates, organized approximately on the same lines as the Directorate. Each province is divided into several "inspection districts", the number of which varies between 6 to 15 according to the size of the province. The head of each district is in charge of inspecting about 100 primary schools and of supervising the activity of the teachers. At the beginning of the school year 1969/70, there were 198 such inspection districts in the country. At the bottom of the scale come the primary schools, each one managed by a headmaster.

A few years ago it was decided, in order to make supervision more efficient, to set the number of assistant inspectors according to the number of schools in each province and to delineate the inspection districts in such a way that each held no more than about 100 teachers. In order to facilitate the frequent journeys made by the district heads along the paths and lanes leading to the schools, UNICEF has provided them with light motorbikes.

Pedagogical conferences are held once or twice a year in Phnom-Penh for the inspectors and assistant inspectors, three or four times a year in the provincial capitals for the heads of inspection districts, and several times a year for the teachers in each district. Besides, the principles and methods of pedagogy are explained and commented upon in the "Revue de l'instituteur khmer" (The Khmer Teacher's Journal), a monthly magazine which is sent free to all teachers and which was running to 22,500 copies in 1969/70.

B. Structure and curriculum

1. Types of schools

Primary education is divided into two stages of three grades each. Elementary primary schools only include the first three grades, while complete primary schools include the six grades. According to the number of the pupils, any grade may comprise one or several classes of the same level. In those primary schools with insufficient staff or number of class-rooms, the headmaster may either consolidate all the classes of the same level into one, or join together classes of different levels (e.g. the second year with the third, or the fourth with the fifth) or else organize part-time sessions, with one group of pupils coming to school in the morning (7-10.30 a.m.) and the rest in the afternoon (2-5.30 p.m.).

In villages where the school-age population is very small, schools with only one or two teachers are created, but these are in fact very few. All the primary schools in the country are co-educational, except for a few at Phnom-Penh and in two or three large provincial towns. Private schools, the number of which is very small, are to be found only in the larger towns.

Finally, mention should be made of the so-called "renovated temple schools" where the curriculum is the same as in the public schools but whose teaching staff is made up of monks who have received some teacher training. These schools operate in rather remote areas. The Khmer Republic does not yet have special schools for the deaf and dumb, the blind, or other handicapped children.

2. Curriculum

The present curriculum dates from 1958. According to a recently set-up evaluation committee, "it is still valid, even though several modifications may be in order. However, its contents is presented in too implicit a fashion that teachers do not always interpret it in conformity with its real aims and meaning". Other criticisms which may be made about it are that it is overloaded, that a number of notions in it are not really necessary, and that a proper learning sequence is not adequately provided from one grade to the next.

During a national seminar on primary education held in March 1972, several working groups reviewed this curriculum and voiced a desire for its reform or adjustment, until such time as a competent specialist body could design a new one. It was recognized at the same time that, besides a common curriculum applicable in most schools, the country needed regional curricula suited to schools in specific areas such as the coastal region, the lake districts and the highlands.

The official language, Khmer, is used throughout in primary education, all subjects being taught in it. According to the present curriculum, French should be taught in Grade IV onwards, but since 1970 it has been a matter of discontinuing doing so in primary schools and of teaching French in secondary schools only.

3. Evaluation and promotion of pupils

At the beginning of the school year, each headmaster decides on the number of pupils to be admitted, within the limit of available places.

When all requests for admission cannot be met, the oldest children are given priority. Pupils coming from other schools may be admitted either at the beginning or in the course of the year, on presentation of their school record. The minimum and the maximum ages for admission to the various grades are as follows: Grade I: 6-11; Grade II: 7-12; Grade III: 8-13; Grade IV: 9-14; Grade V: 10-15; Grade VI: 11-16.

Pupils are enrolled in different grades according to their level of attainment. Those with faulty vision or hearing are seated near the teacher and the blackboard. In those classes with several divisions, the pupils in the various divisions are not mixed up together, but placed in parallel rows depth-wise. Girls and boys are separated only for certain practical pursuits such as home economics, workshop activities and physical education.

One year is normally spent in each grade. However, pupils may repeat once only during each stage provided their age makes it possible. In order to be promoted, pupils must have obtained a satisfactory average mark at the quarterly examinations. Those who have not must take a promotion examination held at the beginning of the next school year.

On completion of the primary stage, pupils wishing to enter a secondary school must take a very difficult competitive examination: only 61.95% were admitted in 1969/70.

C. Size and budget of primary education, public and private schools, 1969/70

School-age population (6-12 age-group)	1 419 523
Total enrolment	959 123
Percentage of girls	41.36%
Enrolment ratio	66.90%
Number of teachers	20 596
Percentage of female teachers	13%
Number of pupils per teacher	46
Total number of schools	5 699
Total public expenditure for education, all levels (in Riels)	1 902 946 260
Percentage allotted to primary education	67.92%
Cost per pupil, 1963/64 data (in Riels)	1 103

II. Problems of primary education

With the attainment of independence in 1953, the Khmer Republic realized that its system of education was suffering a severe lag, qualitative as well as quantitative, due to the fact that under the régime of the French Protectorate, responsibility for the development was not incumbent on the national authorities, and that such education as was given, being devised in a restricted perspective, did not meet the needs of the masses: in 1955, the primary enrolment ratio was only 7%. As to quality and effectiveness, the curricula and methods were found to be highly theoretical and academic in character, aiming above all at training some civil servants and not at developing the country's human resources for social and economic progress. This explained why, up till then, the population had shown little interest in education. The development of primary education, therefore, posed the two problems of quantitative expansion and qualitative improvement, which are closely interrelated and inseparable.

Primary education had been hindered before independence by the following factors:

a) The set-back experienced at the end of the protectorate, which had to be overcome by dint of tremendous efforts;

b) Under-development, which did not allow sufficient financial resources to be channelled towards the rapid expansion of education, the country having been confronted with a host of problems, each of equal urgency;

c) An insufficient support from the people who, because of the faulty orientation of the system, did not understand nor appreciate the value and necessity of education;

d) The limitation of technical means and several organizational defects, because of which it was impossible to overcome the lack of qualified teachers and to produce enough teaching materials;

e) Finally and above all, the absence of a clear and precise educational policy and of thoughtful planning for educational development, which resulted in the frittering away of available resources and gave rise to new problems.

Another compounding factor was the population increase, which reached 2.7% per year during the sixties. In a total population of seven million, this ratio means that about 180,000 additional children are enrolled each year, to whom should be added those who could not be enrolled in the previous years. This explains the slow growth of the enrolment ratio.

The problems posed at the national level by the development of education are multifarious, since education itself is a system with many interrelated and interacting components.

A. Resources

The lack of adequate financial means should be mentioned first of all; whatever may have been said to the contrary, this is indeed the

root of every other difficulty. The expansion of education clearly requires that new schools must be built and equipped, teachers trained and paid, necessary material and aids bought, and necessary administrative machinery established. In other words, a sound development is costly, and entails expenses which generally our country cannot afford. The authorities have therefore to choose one of the three following approaches:

a) A rapid quantitative expansion, with no concern for quality;

b) Stressing quality, with quantitative growth only if and when resources become available;

c) Both qualitative and quantitative development, either simultaneously or alternately.

Whatever alternative is adopted, it certainly cannot be implemented only with the country's own resources.

The strategy devised for modernizing primary education involved two stages; during the first one, the quantitative development was stressed because of the gap which had to be bridged; in the second, efforts were made both to enrol more and more children and to improve the standards and quality of education. Three factors played a positive role: the temples, the Government's own efforts, and popular support.

Role of the temples. Even before the establishment of the French protectorate in 1864, the temples were educational centres where monks taught children how to read and write. Most of the children stayed there until they came of age so that on leaving, they were equipped not only with a good knowledge of the language, but also with a religious education and some training in handicrafts.

Later, under the protectorate, elementary primary schools with two or three grades were set up in the temples and called "renovated temple schools". Classes were held in the assembly hall and school furniture was provided by the religious authorities with the help of the community. The official curriculum was followed, but the teaching staff was composed of monk-teachers to whom some accelerated training had been given. They were voluntary teachers, the Government's contribution being limited to providing the indispensable teaching materials. As these schools had demonstrated a large measure of efficiency in spite of their slender means, the Government encouraged their creation in greater numbers, a task which was all the easier since temples were already in existence everywhere, even in very remote places.

As time passed, however, education given in the temple schools appeared to be inadequate. Genuine primary schools offering six grades were needed. Therefore the authorities, while creating new schools, also upgraded the existing temple schools into official institutions. Nevertheless, wherever it is impossible to have a public school established, the renovated temple schools continue to operate even now and some new ones are organized.

Efforts by the Government. However, it was necessary to wait until after independence (1953) in order to see primary education really get under way. Motivating factors were the awakening of the national conscience, a desire of the people for rapid socio-economic betterment of their lot and the people's educational needs. Then children flocked towards the schools in large numbers. In order to be able to educate them, the Government strove hard and in successive budgets increased the amounts allotted to education: 12% in 1955, 17% in 1960, 22% in 1965 and 25% in 1967, and enrolments steadily grew from year to year.

In spite of this progress, the enrolment ratio for the 6-12 age-group hardly exceeded 50%; and there was a risk of a stanstill there since the Government could increase its financial effort only at the cost of harming development in other equally vital sectors. School authorities therefore called upon the help of the population.

Popular support. After independence, popular interest in education rapidly intensified until it became a genuine need. So people readily accepted the fact that their help was needed to construct and equip school buildings. At first sporadic and ill-assorted, this popular contribution was later organized in the form of "Associations for the development of education". Eventually, each province found itself endowed with one of these associations, whose assistance included the acquisition of teaching materials and in some cases the recruitment and payment of teachers.

The associations collect funds by various means: members' fees, donations, fairs, lotteries, exhibitions with sales, sports and artistic events, etc. Their total contribution in 1969/70 was estimated at more than 15 million riels, not including contributions in kind (timber, bricks and cement) and in voluntary manpower, nor the generosity of wealthy persons who have financed the construction of a block of class-rooms or of a whole school - which was then given their name.

Thanks to these three categories of resources, primary education in the Khmer Republic was able to develop at a reasonably satisfying pace as the following figures show:

1955: 356 300 pupils i.e. 8% of the total population
1960: 567 800 " " 11% " "
1965: 797 309 " " 12% " "
1970: 959 123 " " 13% " "

Quantitative development, however, meant a general decline in quality, which is apparent in the facilities as well as in the teaching staff and the standards of teaching.

B. Facilities

School buildings. Urgent needs and inadequate funds made it impossible to care for the quality of school buildings and thus to obtain satisfactory conditions regarding both hygiene and teaching requirements. A number of schools do not comply with building standards while many others have no workshop or library or special class-rooms. In the rural areas, most schools are built of wood and covered with tiles or corrugated iron, and there still exist a few made of bamboo and straw roofing. Their furniture and equipment is not, generally speaking, in a better condition.

In order to remedy this, the National Educational Planning Office, with the help of ARISBR (Asian Regional Institute for School Building Research) has since 1966 been recommending or prescribing various fundamental technical norms and overseeing their application.

Teaching aids. The shortage of teaching materials has become extremely acute as a result of the rapid expansion of education. Many schools are simply lacking everything, while others are inadequately endowed. Some teachers improvise teaching aids with the means at hand, but most of them are unable to do so or have no idea of using local resources which yet offer many possibilities. The office in charge of developing and distributing materials has still not got the means to serve the whole country. Until mass production can be initiated, prototypes are given as models to imitate, while teachers learn how to manufacture such equipment when they attend seminars and training courses.

School books. As primary education is carried out entirely in Khmer, all textbooks must accordingly be written in that language. The Directorate of Pedagogical Services of the Education Ministry is responsible for their production. In spite of numerous difficulties, great efforts have been made for several years to meet the most pressing needs, and projects are being considered for the production not only of textbooks, but also of recreational books, popular scientific and technical books, etc. The contribution by the private sector, which plays an important part in that production, deserves to be mentioned, as well as the recent birth of "Sakhabani", an organization of teachers and writers which aims at publishing books for young people; several titles are already on sale.

C. Teaching staff

Up to 1957, one single teacher training college was producing teachers in the Khmer Republic. Student-teachers were recruited on leaving primary school and had then to undertake four years of study. As only a limited number could be trained in this way, an intensive two-year training course was set up, and two other colleges opened after 1957. These three institutions assured a regular flow of teachers, but the duration of the intensive course had to be reduced to one year, then to 6 months and finally to 3, during the rapid expansion phase, in order to satisfy the schools' enormous and urgent needs. In the most critical period of our "education explosion", it became necessary to recruit former teacher-monks and people having only their primary certificate who were posted as instructors without having been given the necessary training. Later on, unqualified "contract" teachers were also engaged. This accounts for the heterogeneous structure of our teaching staff which is made up of five categories: the so-called "floating" teachers, contract teachers, instructors, primary teachers and higher primary teachers.

From 1960 onwards, teacher training was made more regular and balanced. Only one type of teachers were recruited and a new, more economical training system was adopted: this consists in engaging young people with the lower secondary certificate (6 years of primary schooling + 4 years of secondary) who then are given one year's professional training. In the last few years, since the number of students getting the first part of the "baccalauréat" (secondary final diploma) has gone up, the level of recruitment has been lifted to the latter diploma (6 years of primary + 6 years of secondary studies). In 1969, a second year of professional studies was added. The education authorities consider that, in a very near future, all primary teachers can be recruited from those having passed the second part of the "baccalauréat" (6 years of primary + 7 years of secondary studies), with 2 years of professional training.

Even if this recruitment and training system may be considered as satisfactory, the number of teachers to be trained is still limited by the Government's financial capabilities. According to the projections for 1970-75, average needs will vary between 1,300 and 1,900 teachers, while the present training capacity stays at about a thousand per year.

As for those teachers whose professional training is nil or inadequate, upgrading courses have been held since 1966, during the holidays, with the help of UNICEF. Even headmasters take part in these. In 1972, 4,404 primary school teachers in all were thus retrained.

III. New orientations

A. Objectives of primary education

According to the official statement of objectives, "The primary curriculum should aim at developing young people into men, citizens and workers; to this effect, it should:

(a) give the child a civic and social education likely to turn him into a good citizen;

(b) awaken in him an awareness of our national values by causing him to understand the civilization and the culture to which he belongs;

(c) develop in him self-respect and respect for others in so far as all are persons of worth and dignity;

(d) foster in him such moral virtues as integrity, foresight, diligence, activity, and a respect and love for work;

(e) facilitate the balanced growth of his mental abilities by encouraging the growth of all his qualities and skills;

(f) develop his aesthetic taste and creativeness;

(g) give him sufficient knowledge in mathematics, the sciences, technology and professional subjects to enable him to earn a living;

(h) give him some training in health, sanitation and home-making with a view to his own welfare and home life improvement.

This official statement is followed by professional instructions bearing on pedagogical principles and methods.

The March 1972 Seminar again defined the aims of primary education as follows: "It is education which aims at giving the child fundamental, practical and useful skills that will be of immediate benefit to him in life, as well as basic skills that will serve as means with which to acquire wider and more advanced knowledge. It is also education which aims at providing the child with the fundamental tools of thought and action that will enable him to live a fully satisfying life as a man and as a citizen and to understand the world where he is to live. It is finally education which develops individuals who are free, knowledgeable, useful to the national community, well equipped to serve the progress and development of the country. Therefore, primary schools should be both instructive and educational. They must teach how to learn, how to think and express oneself, how to act, how to behave".

This reorientation of primary education led the Seminar participants to state the following guidelines from which the aims of the new syllabus to be worked out should be derived:

(a) To take into account the present and future needs of the individual and of the community;

(b) To take into account in a realistic way the expectations and hopes nourished by the individual and community in the framework of their culture, resources and potentialities;

(c) To take into account the children's potential for comprehension, acquisition and assimilation at the various stages of their growth;

(d) To take into account past experiences showing failures or mistakes, which should serve as starting points for a search of the most favourable factors and conditions for success and progress;

(e) To take into account the "distance" that children are expected to cover during their primary studies, so that their desired stage of development may be approximately decided;

(f) To take into account the need to integrate young people into a constantly changing society.

The principles being thus stated, it remains to define objectives responding not only to the Government's general policy in educational matters but also to the aims of primary education as set out above. This task demands careful thought, objectivity and realism, and implies that the Government has taken beforehand certain policy decisions.

Not less important is a precise formulation of these objectives, since the success and efficiency of education rest to a large degree on their proper understanding and interpretation. Ordinarily, these objectives are expressed in general, vague and abstract terms. The new curriculum should, on the contrary, set them out in terms that are more concrete, clearer and more precise, i.e. in such a manner that teachers know exactly what results they are expected to obtain with their pupils.

It is an equally delicate task to develop the contents of the new syllabus for which principles such as the following should be observed: to keep constantly in mind the set objectives, to choose only essential and useful notions in order to avoid encyclopaedism, to ensure a gradual offering of knowledge and correlation between the various subjects, to maintain adequate links with concrete and living realities, to present each subject in the appropriate way, etc. It is desirable that each chapter devoted to a specific subject should begin by methodological guidelines explaining the specific objectives of the chapter and suggesting the methods and techniques to be used.

But education is a system consisting of several components, so that the syllabus alone, however well designed, cannot effect the attainment of the fixed goals. Its success depends on the use of an adequate methodology, which in turn calls for appropriate teaching materials and well-trained teachers. Continuous supervision, control and evaluation are equally necessary if we are to reach our goals, perform better and progress.

Believing that the present system of primary education is rather obsolete and no longer answers the present and future needs of the younger generation nor the country's political and socio-economic evolution, the National Education Ministry proposes to introduce necessary reforms and innovations. In fact, for about fifteen years, no clear-cut policy for primary education has been formulated, and such readjustment work as has been done proved to be disorderly, spasmodic and sectorial. Primary education has not been assigned well-defined objectives and roles, and its main basic problems have not been identified. Efforts and resources were scattered away for lack of a balanced development planning. On the technical side, pedagogical methods and practices still in use have ignored the psycho-educational advances which have been accomplished in other countries.

B. Emergence of a plan for reform and innovation

1. Preparatory work

The purpose of the March 1972 Seminar were to clarify the situation and the problems of primary education and to elicit suggestions and recommendations as to its proper reorientation. The creation of an Office of School Curricula in August 1972 was one of its outcomes. The main tasks entrusted to this Office are to work out in detail a new curriculum and an action programme for its implementation.

The Office works within the framework of a wide-ranging programme of reorganization and planning of the national system of education encompassing all its levels, from pre-school to higher and out-of-school education. This programme, which is itself a part of the national post-war reconstruction and development plan, will cover the period 1973 to 1980 and will be implemented with technical assistance from UNDP and other Agencies such as the FAO, ILO, WHO and Unesco working closely together. The responsibility for the programme will rest with the National Educational Planning Office, which has already set up several committees.

2. Work plan for reform and innovation in primary education

Definition of policies. The Educational Reorganization and Planning Committee is first of all to define educational policies which will serve as guidelines for future development. The draft policies already selected and soon to be submitted to the Government for approval are briefly as follows:

i) To make education both a process and a mechanism for social, economic and cultural development;

ii) To think of education as both a short-term and a long-term investment;

iii) To popularize education by designing it for, and gearing it towards,the masses of the people ;

iv) To ruralize and regionalize education in order to promote progress in rural areas ;

v) To conceive of education not as an end in itself but as a continuous and continuing undertaking ;

vi) To develop technical and professional education at the various levels, according to needs ;

vii) To introduce pre-professional activities into general education in order to remedy its over-academic and over-theoretical character ;

viii) To teach in the Khmer language in order to popularize scientific and technological knowledge, and to strengthen the teaching of foreign languages in order to give people a wider outlook upon the world ;

ix) To preserve and strenghten the nation's social,ethical and spiritual values.

Derivation of objectives of primary education from these policies. This is considered to be a very important and delicate task as the various components of the whole education system (curriculum contents, methodology, teacher training, etc.) stem directly from it. These objectives must be formulated in precise and concrete terms, related to popular needs and commensurate with the country's capabilities and resources.

Detailed planning in relation with objectives. Four successive operations are foreseen:

i) To calculate the contents of the new curriculum so that stated objectives may be reached ;

ii) To test it in pilot schools, and to finalize it through evaluation ;

iii) To promulgate it after an explanatory campaign ;

iv) To check and assess its implementation in order to improve it.

Working out an adequate methodology, the basic tenets of which would be as follows:

i) To overthrow the old doctrine according to which the teacher's only function is to impart knowledge and see to it that it is remembered ;

ii) To devise new methods which are both instructive and formative, and aim at developing the individual and his abilities so that he can continue learning and educating himself ;

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iii) To combat formal, theoretical and academic teaching and to promote a realistic, functional and utilitarian one ;

iv) To introduce and rapidly spread the use of modern educational technology.

Training and upgrading teachers, by concentrating efforts on:

i) A revision of recruitment methods;

ii) A reform of the teacher training curriculum ;

iv) The upgrading of in-service teachers, beginning with those in key positions.

Development, production and acquisition of adequate teaching materials. The goal here will be to furnish schools with their basic requirements in equipment. To this end, a research and development service will be set up, as well as a central workshop for the development of prototype materials or the mass production of selected models. Book production will be taken care of by the Textbooks Office in the Pedagogical Services Directorate.

3. Reorganization of services

A new organizational chart is being studied and should soon be applied: new services will be created while several existing ones will be structurally or functionally transformed or consolidated for better co-ordination. The standard principle "conception, execution, control and evaluation" will be applied with a view towards increased efficiency.

4. A wider outlook on the outside world

The Khmer Republic will increase and strengthen its contacts with other countries, regional bodies and international agencies (SEAMEO, Unesco, ILO, etc.). Their technical assistance will be requested as and when necessary. It will participate in those educational conferences and seminars which it considers of interest. Lastly, it will send as many trainees as possible to the various regional or international training centres.

Conclusions

Three main conclusions can be drawn from the above survey:

1. During the last 15 years and especially since 1960, the Khmer Government has made considerable efforts to develop primary education, following the guidelines laid down at the Karachi and Tokyo conferences.

2. The Government intends to continue these efforts within the context of its mass education policy, utilizing all existing and potential resources and carefully planning their use for the maximum efficiency.

3. In parallel to quantitative development, the Government intends to give primary education a new orientation in order to improve its efficiency and productivity, and more particularly to promote that fundamental social and economic growth likely to foster the country's welfare and development.

Statistics of primary education
(public and private schools)

Table 1. Trends in primary school-age population and primary enrolment

School year	School-age population (6-12)	Primary enrolment	Enrolment ratio (%)	Annual enrolment increase (%)
1965/66	1 277 103	787 875	61.7	-
1966/67	1 313 847	837 350	63.7	6.3
1967/68	1 349 747	898 086	66.8	7.2
1968/69	1 385 150	926 357	66.9	3.1
1969/70	1 419 523	949 725	66.9	2.5
1970/71	1 452 837	[1]337 729	-	-
1971/72	1 490 334	[1]484 088	-	-

1. Decline brought about by the war.

Table 2. Total enrolment and repeaters, by grade and sex, school year 1968/69

Grade	Total enrolment		Repeaters (included in total)	
	Both sexes	Girls	Both sexes	Girls
I	329 638	144 449	77 914	34 635
II	204 851	90 977	30 915	13 667
III	150 335	64 041	20 644	8 433
IV	105 350	40 826	12 993	4 758
V	72 501	25 340	7 691	2 563
VI	56 781	15 720	11 571	3 137
Total	919 456	381 353	161 728	67 193

Table 3. Trends in the teaching staff[1] and number of primary schools

School year	Total number of teachers	Number of female teachers	Percentage of female teachers	Number of pupils per teacher	Number of schools
1965/66	14 471	1 826	12.6	54	3 718
1966/67	16 482	2 252	13.7	50	4 062
1967/68	17 968	2 529	14.1	49	5 716
1968/69	19 431	2 655	13.7	48	5 857
1969/70	20 596	2 795	13.6	46	5 689
1970/71[2]	17 378	2 945	16.9	19	1 450
1971/72[2]	17 959	3 023	16.8	27	1 450

1. Not including teachers in private schools.
2. Decline brought about by the war.

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PRIMARY EDUCATION IN LAOS

by Bounthong Vixaysakd

Historical background

Laos is a country steeped in Buddhism, which is not only a religion, but a civilization, a way of life. The monks are the priests of the Buddha's teachings, but they have always been seen also as teachers responsible for educating the minds. Each village has a temple which from time immemorial has been as much an educational as a religious centre where every Lao could stay for a time to receive instruction, and even training for a job: the temple was indeed the only place where teaching could take place. Even now, every Lao - especially in rural areas - will don the yellow robe for a varying length of time and, while staying in the temple, learn not only the Buddhist prayers and psalms but also how to read and write. When the French came to Laos, they did not suppress this popular traditional education; gradually, however, it has ceded importance to the new system.

In 1907, the education department of the French protectorate administration established the first French-Lao schools where an education patterned after the metropolitan model was given in French. From 1927 onwards, Lao teachers were produced in a teacher training college; the training thus offered, involving six years of study leading to the certificate of primary education, was indeed sound but remained the prerogative of an elite; in 1945, on the eve of independence, there were only 187 primary schools with 453 teachers and 11,401 pupils, and the enrolment ratio was as low as 2%. In the first two years of independence, tremendous efforts were made to expand education further despite the lack of personnel inherited from the colonial period (in fact, the French had extended their assistance mainly to the richest regions of their Asian colonial empire, i.e. to Viêt-nam and to a lesser extent to Cambodia): from 1945 to 1947, the enrolment in primary schools tripled to 31,000 pupils; this trend continued until 1959/60 when it reached 117,000. After a temporary slackening during the civil war in 1960/61, progress was resumed: in 1963/64, there were 119,537 pupils in the public primary schools and 13,895 in the private ones. In 1971/72, the maximum projections were exceeded with a total of 236,679 pupils and 5,770 teachers in 3,222 schools, to which should be added 76 private schools catering to more than 30,000 pupils in their primary grades.

I. The system of primary education

A. Structure

The present system is the outcome of the educational reform of 1962, and comprises two stages:

1. A first stage, of three years' duration, which is offered in:

   a) Elementary schools, the commonest type of schools in the rural areas; if there is an adequate number of school-age children, an elementary school may be converted into a "demi-groupe scolaire" or a "groupe scolaire" (see below, and under B. Administration);

   b) Community Education Rural Centres (CERCs) which were initiated in 1962 with a view to enrolling as many children as possible: they serve at the same time as lower primary schools, youth centres and adult education centres; a CERC may therefore be either:

      - a temple school, founded in any village where a temple is in existence; or
      - a public primary school; or
      - where there is no temple nor public primary school, a rural school built on the villagers' own initiative with a teacher (sometimes working part-time) selected and maintained by the community.

The elementary schools often consist of one single class divided into three grades, the first grade being split into two divisions if the number of children is large enough; in this case, the provincial primary inspector may authorize the operation of part-time classes or schools where one group of children are taught in the morning and the others in the afternoon.

2. A second stage, of three years' duration, in which the learning of a second language (French at the moment) is compulsory; at the end of the final year, pupils sit for the primary certificate or for the secondary school entrance examination. This second stage is offered either in "groupes scolaires" (comprising the full six years of the primary course) or in "demi-groupes scolaires", i.e. elementary schools which do not yet comprise the six regular grades but are in the process of becoming complete institutions.

Under pressure from the parents, most CERCs have gradually turned into elementary schools with a single class divided into three grades. The only difference between them and the public schools is that their teachers are not civil servants: the Government gives them a monthly allowance which ranges from 3,000 kips (1US $=600 kips at the official rate) for beginners to 6,000 kips for those who have participated in at least four upgrading seminars; the allowance is supplemented as needed by parents' contributions in money or in kind.

In 1962, the Government envisaged the establishment of 1,500 CERCs within three years, but owing to the insecurity prevailing in some rural regions, the difficulty of communications and the scarcity of national resources, only 891 have been opened so far. Their work is supplemented by that of the monks and the military (especially in remote areas and dangerous operations sectors). In order that isolated communities may benefit from education, the rule that a minimum of 35 children aged from 6 to 9 is necessary for an elementary school to be created has been waived in the case of CERCs where the average pupil-teacher ratio is in fact slightly less than 25:1 (23,448 pupils for 960 teachers).

B. Administration

For a school to be created, there must be at least 35 children aged from 6 to 9 in the village or group of villages which the school would serve. Children are enrolled when their parents apply for it; the maximum number of pupils in the first grade should not exceed 50 although the headmaster may admit a few more for very special reasons. As well as a playground and a garden, every new school must be provided with enough space for its expansion and eventual conversion into a "demi-groupe" and later a "groupe scolaire". The community is expected to build, maintain and repair the school, to equip it with the necessary furniture and to provide an adequate house for the teacher.

An elementary school may be upgraded as a "demi-groupe scolaire" if and when: (a) its total enrolment exceeds 120 pupils; (b) the nearest "demi-groupe" is more than 5 kilometres away; and (c) there are at least three other elementary schools in the neighbourhood whose older pupils are likely to enrol in the first year of its second stage. The conditions to be met for a "demi-groupe" to be converted into a "groupe scolaire" are as follows: (a) that the total enrolment is 180 at least (this rule may be waived in very remote areas); (b) that the school building has at least five class-rooms; (c) that a sixth grade has been successfully in operation for one year with at least 20 pupils; and (d) that a suitable house is available, in principle, for the headmaster.

The establishment of a primary school and/or its conversion into a "groupe scolaire" is decreed by the Minister of Education, as proposed by the Director of Primary Education to whom the provincial primary inspector has submitted a report to that effect after consultation with the competent local authorities.

Pupils in higher primary grades (second stage) are in no case allowed to repeat two successive grades nor to stay for three years in the same grade.

C. Enrolment

School attendance was made compulsory by a Royal Decree of 26 April 1951 as far as elementary primary education is concerned. Village and district headmen, being responsible for the efficient functioning of public utility services, have a duty - each one within the limits of his powers - to keep up-to-date population counts, to know at all times the numbers of school-age children, to encourage parents to enrol their wards and to make sure the latter do not play truant. Furthermore, by its adhesion to the Karachi Plan in 1960, Laos has undertaken - as have all other Asian countries - to achieve free and compulsory education for all school-age children by 1980. Because of budgetary limitations and of population growth, universal education may not be reached by this date; we are nevertheless concentrating all our efforts towards the generalization of elementary education, utilizing the least expensive methods such as the CERCs and recourse to monks as educators.

All the grades in the two primary stages have a single teacher, who teaches in Lao in the first stage and in Lao and French in the second. Because of the lack of personnel, out of a total of 5,298 teachers, 924 (17.4%) have a single class comprising three grades, and 1,464 (27.6%) a single class with two grades. The average pupil-teacher ratio (40:1) hardly exceeds the optimum value, but there are appreciable variations between some remote villages with a small school-age population and towns where schools may have more than 50 pupils per teacher, especially in Grade I. The number of pupils in urban "groupes scolaires" varies from 1,000 to 3,000; in elementary schools, it should not exceed 300. As for the enrolment ratio, if the period under consideration is extended to 8 years (age-group 6-14) and if it is supposed that 20% of the total population belongs to this age-group, then the ratio stands at 44%, once the high rate of repetition is taken into account. However, large differences exist between Vientiane where it reaches 90% and various areas severely affected by the war where less than 10% of the children are in fact enrolled; furthermore, there is no correlation between population density and school enrolment in provincial regions.

All schools are co-educational, since there is no discrimination according to sex in the traditional structure of the Lao family; however, a lower enrolment ratio for girls can be noted (37.3 % as against 62.7% for boys in 1971/72) but the girls' enrolment ratio increases faster than that of the boys: from 1960/61 to 1969/70, while the annual mean rate of increase of the school population as a whole was 11 %, it was 9.75 % per year for boys and about 14.5 % for girls. This was a direct outcome of the Educational Reform Act of 1962 which urged in its Article 3 "a special effort to give women and ethnic minorities real equality of access to education".

Private education is encouraged and schools of all denominations or non-denominational are authorized as long as they abide by health regulations as set out by the Education and Health Ministries, follow the official curriculum and grant the same freedom of conscience to their pupils and teachers that they themselves enjoy. At the moment, private schools, most of them situated in Vientiane, account for 11 % of the total primary enrolment.

D. Resources for primary education

The national education budget for 1971/72 represents about 11 % of the State expenditures (or 22 % of the national resources, not including foreign aid), and the share of primary education amounts to nearly 61 %. While the education budget increased by 12 % from 1969/70 to 1970/71 and by 11.8 % from 1970/71 to 1971/72, the share of primary education grew by 15.7 % and 7 % respectively. However, almost 99 % of the total is spent on staff costs, leaving only an exceedingly small amount for operating the schools and services; therefore, our system is cruelly lacking in teaching materials, with the exception of textbooks adapted to the new curriculum. In 1971/72, the budget for primary education was 1,350 million kips for staff costs and 7.2 million kips only for operating expenses, but the targets for 1975/76 are 2,290 and 10 million kips respectively; school buildings will continue to be financed through self-help while their upkeep and equipment costs will be the community's responsibility.

Even though foreign aid is important to Laos (the largest amount coming from the United States) it is difficult to set it out in figures. However, the amount allocated to educational projects is extremely limited because enormous sums are earmarked for financing the war, making up budgetary deficit and maintaining monetary stability. In 1971/72, USAID's contribution towards primary education was 125,000 dollars, which were spent mainly on training seminars for in-service teachers; to this should be added gifts of equipment, building materials and school supplies for the refugees, as well as a contribution for the printing of textbooks. Other aid programmes sponsored by the Colombo Plan, the Governments of Canada, Australia and France and the Asia Foundation have made more specific contributions to primary education in the form of equipment and scholarships abroad. This assistance - difficult to be reckoned - not being taken into account, the average cost per pupil stood at 5,800 kips in 1971/72 and the annual cost of a teacher is about 236,000 kips. As a matter of fact, the level of teachers' salaries and allowances is rather low in Laos, and is even lower than in other Asian countries.

In order to involve children in village improvement activities, teachers may organize every year a so-called "social week in the school": during 5 days, not necessarily consecutive, pupils participate in the laying out of tracks, the erection of fences, the maintenance of furniture, etc. with funds raised by the parents' association or allocated to the provincial primary inspectorate.

II. Difficulties and problems

A. School wastage

Our main concern being the qualitative improvement of the education system, the problem which reduces the most the efficiency of our schools is undoubtedly that of wastage. This scourge obviously obtains also in many developing countries, but in Laos it is out of all proportion: it is most acute at the end of the first year of schooling (38 % of pupils had to repeat and 2 % dropped out in 1970/71) and at the transition from the first to the second stage; in the latter case, one could more accurately describe it as "rejection", since many pupils who finish their first three years in a remote place have no complete school available within reasonable distance of their village. This phenomenon can also be explained by the introduction of the French language in the second stage, which is a nuisance to both teachers and pupils: selection for secondary education (given exclusively in French in the majority of schools) begins at this time, and less than one in 10 pupils is able to overcome the obstacle.

From Grade I to Grade VI, enrolment thus goes whittling down in such a way that the total average rate of wastage was 77.5 % for the cohort 1965 to 1971; this ratio is even higher in rural areas than in urban centres for well-known reasons: lack of a sufficient number of complete schools, overcrowded classes, low quality of the teaching staff, children working on the farms with their parents, etc.

B. Teaching staff

On the other hand, as living conditions are tougher in rural areas, the more qualified teachers are greatly reluctant to accept being posted there; and since secondary schools are found mostly in towns, teachers sent far away from urban centres tend to worry about the difficulties their own children will face when they are of secondary school-age. Although they would enjoy a certain prestige among country people, very few newly appointed teachers will agree to leave town unless they go and teach in the village where they were born. Finally, the low salaries in the teaching profession makes recruitment of qualified people very difficult, and the brightest pupils prefer to continue into secondary schools or to choose other fields of study giving access to more lucrative jobs or offering more definite employment prospects in town.

A survey made in 1971 has shown that only 18 % of teachers possess the CEP (certificate of primary education) with four years of training in the primary teachers' college, that almost 70 % have the CEP with 3 to 6 months' intensive training (or at the most 2 years) and that 12 %, mostly CERC teachers, do not even have the CEP.

C. Openings for pupils

Another problem which is no less serious stems from the rigorous selection made at the end of the primary course for entry into secondary education: in 1971/72, owing to lack of places, only 1,164 pupils out of a total of 14,809 candidates could be admitted, i.e. hardly 8 %. This situation should gradually improve, but there will always be a number of young CEP holders without sufficient qualifications for entry into the productive sector and dreaming of nothing else but leaving their villages and becoming civil servants in town. With a view to giving these young misfits enough instruction to enable them to play a role in their village life, and some practical training in workshop and agricultural skills with which they may actively participate in local development and especially in raising the standard of living and of agricultural productivity, four rural schools have been in operation since 1964 with a view to "facilitating the training and settling of independent craftsmen in the villages". As this initial aim cannot be widened at the moment because of the lack of resources and of competent teachers, the authorities are now carrying out a study to set up 20 new pilot centres in areas offering prospects for economic and social development; each centre will have its own training objectives, dictated by the specific needs and possibilities of the area. If this experiment turns out to be successful, it will be extended to other regions as and when the necessary funds are made available.

III. Objectives and experiments

As in every other traditional society, the education, both religious and secular, given in the past by the monks was meant to pass on the national traditions and culture so that the individual could better identify himself with his village community. But our modern society is undergoing change; it was therefore necessary to integrate education into the socio-economic fabric of a nation which is experiencing far-reaching transformations, to stop trying to adapt the individual to his own group and to show him instead how constantly to adapt himself to rapid changes in structures and to the quick tempo of knowledge evolution. This was the main guideline of the 1962 Reform, which gave priority to the acquisition of skills rather than of academic knowledge, and to practice rather than theory, yet without neglecting a constant reference to our cultural background. Tradition and progress are thus associated and people are enriched by values and experiences.

Whatever its deficiencies and limitations may have been in reality, this traditional education given in the temples had an objective that was appropriate to a static society limited to the village community; it also contained some principles of universal wisdom. During the colonial period, it was supplanted by an educational system which also aimed at training "good citizens" - that is those whom the colonial system needed: subordinate civil servants and just as many low-grade executives as would ensure the proper functioning of the administrative machinery; qualitative improvement and quantitative expansion were never its major aim and concern. Our educational system has been stamped by this heritage both in its orientation and in its structure, and it was not until 1962, when its inadequacy to the new conditions prevailing in an independent country had been recognized and the people's strong aspirations to education had been acknowledged, that its basic principles were reconsidered.

On the quantitative side, the initial goal was to give the whole population the benefit of a modicum of instruction, which implied enrolling all children aged from 6 to 12 and providing education for all those, adults as well as adolescents, who had missed the opportunity of going to school or had dropped out. This meant increasing considerably the number of schools and of teachers, an impossible task to achieve with our modest resources and in view of our limited teacher training capacity: the mere salaries of the 20,000 teachers needed would have amounted to 118% of the national budget. We therefore chose a more realistic method and embarked upon a process of gradual and rational enrolment of school-age children, as a result of which the set targets have been reached and exceeded; the projected targets for 1976 are 281,000 pupils in both primary stages and a total of 9,000 teachers, with 4,500 classes in the elementary schools and 4,200 in the complete primary schools.

The second objective, a qualitative one, was first of all to reduce wastage and to improve the efficiency of the educational system. Actually, one major cause of wastage is poorly qualified teachers; the necessity of opening more and more schools meant that people with only a low level of general education and very poor professional training had to be recruited. The measures adopted by the Directorate for Teacher Training in the Overall Plan for 1969-1974 (i.e. various structural reforms and some modifications in the length of schooling and the curriculum) are inadequate: experience in other developing countries shows indeed that a sound professional training can only be obtained through a series of up-grading sessions and that it is by sharing and discussing individual difficulties that teachers will devise new solutions which may later be applied nation-wise. To this end, 7,400 "seminar units" (their length depending on the kind of seminar and on the level of the people to be up-graded) have taken place up to 1971/72, and the total should reach 9,450 by 1976.

Regarding the "laocization" of education, it should be noted that while all teaching and administrative staff are Lao, only the first stage is completely laocized; French is taught from Grade IV onwards in order to ensure a transition with secondary education where laocization is much slower.

The curriculum and syllabi were radically transformed in 1962 in order to better adapt them to the national context. The subject-matter is now organized around special interest themes: Laotian towns and villages in the elementary grades, various sectors of human activity in the country and the West in the second stage (agriculture and rural life in Grade IV, industry and urban life in Grade V, commerce and human relationships in Grade VI). Moral, social and religious education (in Laos, the latter is an integral part of the former two) is strongly emphasized and the creation of a youth organization in every school is encouraged.

Actually, since 1962, the development of education has somewhat diverged from the main orientations defined in the Reform. Achievements and projects in the field of training have been no better linked than formerly to the human environment, nor to the foreseeable needs of the national economy. The political situation as well as the level of competence of our teachers have certainly not permitted establishing the new structures and effectively implementing the new curricula. However, the Overall Plan now makes it possible for new educational projects to be fitted properly within the framework delineated by the 1962 Reform, which called for the following actions:

1. Integration of school education, through the "interest themes" approach, the continuity in the acquisition of knowledge and the linking together of the different stages of education.

2. Deliberate adaptation of education to foreseeable needs of the economy, by the following means:

   a) A determined orientation of the primary curriculum towards the acquisition of the knowledge and skills necessary for an immediate improvement in the standards of living and of production (possibly in co-operation with the economic and social ministries);

b) A progression from the practical towards the theoretical, and the introduction of manual work which should, as far as possible, be profitable (school garden, animal farm or workshop);

c) A switch of emphasis from knowledge towards skills and attitudes required of a modern worker: diligence, team spirit, curiosity, initiative, punctuality, sense of productivity, etc.

d) A flexible adaptation of education, its structures, its curricula and its enrolment to the foreseeable manpower needs;

e) A revitalization of our traditional culture and an extension of the Buddhist teaching and law so that individuals and society may maintain their inner balance.

3. Mobilization of all the nation's educational resources, the school being only one educational tool amongst many others; to this end, a "Special Commission for the study of educational development in conjunction with economic and social development" has been created in March 1962, of which representatives of the various ministries interested in education are members.

Despite the progress just described, Laos is still far from achieving the aims stated in 1962. It is however not the spirit of the Reform which is at fault, but the conditions in which it was implemented: this has raised many difficulties - formidable but not insuperable. For the Reform to be properly effected, the quality of the teaching staff must be focused upon; teachers must be made to fully understand its meaning, and then be able to develop and adapt the curriculum and syllabi accordingly. Equally imperative is the elimination of the prejudice which would have our youth believe that education leads only to the civil service; they must be convinced that middle-level personnel are just as important as top executives.

As far as curricula are concerned, several seminars have already been held which brought together, at the central, provincial and local levels, those principally in charge of primary education in order to adapt the syllabi of the various school subjects: two syllabi have thus been revised in 1971/72, and five more will be by 1976 when 21 textbooks will also have been recast.

On the other hand, special importance has recently been attached to the pedagogical role of the educational leaders, particularly at the local level, through the setting up of the National School Inspectorate, whereby the administrative and the pedagogical functions formerly vested in the same officials will be split. The problem of selection has also been rethought: in 1971, the CEP which crowns the six years' primary course has been modified and the traditional essay-type tests were replaced by a series of multiple-choice tests which make it possible to assess not only the body of knowledge assimilated by each pupil and the gaps wherein, but also and most importantly the skills he has acquired and his thinking and reasoning ability.

Conclusion

In spite of the difficulties inherent in the present situation and of the scarcity of resources, the results that Laos has obtained in the field of primary education over the last few years are by no means negligible. All our achievements would have been impossible but for the participation of the people who have contributed towards the building of numerous schools and classes, especially through the self-help programme, and the devotion of the parents' associations, the number of which is growing throughout the country; but our aim is to go beyond this simple material assistance and to deeply involve the parents in their children's education.

Our goals for the first half of the present decade are realistic and may be summarized as follows:

1. Quantitative goals (for 1976):
    - 281,000 pupils enrolled in the two primary stages;
    - 9,000 teachers, i.e. 500 new teachers per year;
    - 9,600 class-rooms to be built, including 4,100 in the complete schools (6 grades).
2. Qualitative goals
    - Reduction of school wastage so that at least 40% of the pupils complete Grade VI;
    - "Laocization" of all stages of primary education;
    - Revision of syllabi in all subjects so that they conform to actual needs and realities;
    - Production of the necessary textbooks in line with the new syllabi;
    - Improvement of teaching methodology;
    - Upgrading all the teachers now serving and developing the Pedagogical Inspectorate;
    - Lowering the pupil-teacher ratio to 35:1;
    - Extending a practical education to those pupils who are unable to enter secondary school;
    - Increasing and developing the numbers and the role of the parents' associations.

Statistics of primary education
(public and private schools)

Table 1. Trends in primary school-age population and primary enrolment

School year	School-age population (6-14 years)[1]	Primary enrolment[2] Total	Private schools	Enrolment ratio (%)	Annual enrolment increase (%)
1965/66	523 400	161 235	15 602	30.8	-
1966/67	537 200	178 470	16 688	33.2	10.7
1967/68	551 000	197 805	18 983	35.9	10.8
1968/69	564 800	206 103	20 379	36.5	4.2
1969/70	578 600	217 359	23 614	37.6	5.5
1970/71	592 400	245 492	27 593	41.4	12.9
1971/72	606 600	265 923	29 244	43.8	8.3

1. Estimated at about 20 % of the total population, using the statistics of the Ministry of Planning and Co-operation.

2. There are about 2.9 % pupils under 6 years of age (in Grade I) and 12.5 % pupils over 14 years of age (mostly in Grade VI).

Table 2. Total enrolment, and repeaters, in public primary schools, by grade and sex, 1970/71

Grade	Enrolment both sexes Total	Repeaters	Girls only Total	Repeaters
I	84 895	35 163	33 787	13 490
II	44 692	10 236	16 739	4 019
III	33 963	7 904	12 024	2 705
IV	22 241	4 465	7 405	1 485
V	15 854	2 879	4 812	925
VI	14 728	4 101	4 050	1 211
Total	216 687	64 748	78 999	23 835

Table 3. Trends in the teaching staff, public and private primary schools

School year	Numbers of teachers		Female teachers			Number of pupils per teacher
	Total	In private schools	Total	%	In private schools	
1965/66	4 336	379	944	21.8	215	37
1966/67	4 703	389	1 043	22.2	226	38
1967/68	4 886	432	1 185	24.2	276	40
1968/69	5 101	379	1 298	25.4	247	40
1969/70	5 465	615	1 583	29.0	410	40
1970/71	6 227	735	1 833	29.4	472	39
1971/72	6 558	788	1 981	30.2	490	40

Table 4. Trends in primary schools[1]

School year	Public schools	Private schools	Total
1965/66	2 629	79	2 708
1966/67	2 744	78	2 812
1967/68	2 857	85	2 942
1968/69	2 944	69	3 013
1969/70	3 101	79	3 180
1970/71	3 152	95	3 247
1971/72	3 216	76	3 292

[1] Not including: public and private kindergartens, four rural handicrafts schools, one home economics school, a few laboratory schools annexed to the teacher training colleges and the primary school which is attached to the "lycée" in Vientiane.

Table 5. Numbers of primary schools by types, school year 1970/71

Types of schools	Number	Enrolment
1. - Complete schools ("groupes scolaires")	293	97 678
- Incomplete schools ("demi-groupes scolaires")	225)	95 581
- Schools with Grades I to III only (elementary schools)	1 756)	
- Community education rural centres (CERCs)	878	23 438
- Kindergartens	6	365
- Laboratory schools	4	837

Table 5. Numbers of primary schools by types, school year 1970/71 (cont'd)

Types of schools	Number	Enrolment
2. - Urban schools [1]	83	...
- Rural schools	3 071	...
- Private schools	95	27 593
3. - Public schools	3 162	217 899
- Private schools	95	27 593
4. - Single sex schools	0	0
- Co-educational schools	3 257	245 492

1. In provincial capitals.

Table 6. Examination results (public primary education)

School year	Enrolment in Grade VI	Successfully passed the CEP [1]		Pupils admitted in 1st year secondary [2]	
		Number	%	Number	%
1965/66	7 279	5 063	69.6	956	13.1
1966/67	8 397	5 544	66.0	925	11.0
1967/68	10 200	6 772	66.4	2 576	25.2
1968/69	11 101	7 616	68.6	1 118	10.1
1969/70	12 579	7 578	60.2	1 254	10.0
1970/71	14 728	10 369	70.4	1 249	8.5
1971/72	16 323	8 491	52.0	1 164	7.1

1. Primary education certificate

2. Competitive examination (limited number of pupil places)

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PRIMARY EDUCATION IN MALAYSIA

by Chew Tow Yow

Free primary education in each of the four main languages (Malay, English, Chinese and Tamil) is offered to all children from the age of 6+ to the age of 11+. Common syllabuses and time-table are used for all types of primary schools, so that whatever language is used as medium of instruction, all pupils follow the same courses in furtherance of the national Malaysian outlook.

In accordance with the policy of the Ministry of Education to make Bahasa Malaysia (Malay) the main medium of instruction in all primary schools, from 1970 and thereafter, all subjects in Grade I other than the English language are conducted in Bahasa Malaysia in all primary English-medium schools.

The primary school curriculum has been revised to develop national consciousness among the younger generation. Steps have also been taken to improve the teaching of mathematics and science in primary schools.

In 1972 there was a total of 1,500,152 pupils in 4,401 schools in West Malaysia, showing an enrolment increase of 2.4% over the previous year. The enrolment ratio was 92.1%. Of the recurrent public expenditure on all levels of education, 47.2% was spent on primary education.

I. The system of primary education

Six years of primary education are provided for all Malaysian children between the ages of 6+ to 11+. Primary education is free in the sense that no school fees are charged. Six-year primary education is followed by an additional three years of comprehensive education at the lower secondary level, making a total of nine years of universal education for all who want it.

Admission of new pupils is restricted normally to the beginning of the school year which is in early January. Admission to a grade is determined by the age of the child on 1 January of the year of entry to the grade. For admission to Grade I a child should not be under 6 and not over 7 years of age on 1 January.

Arrangements are normally made by the State Chief Education Officers for all children to be registered for admission to a school not later than December of the year in which the child reaches his/her fourth birthday, and for this registration to be confirmed not later than December of the year in which the child reaches his/her fifth birthday.

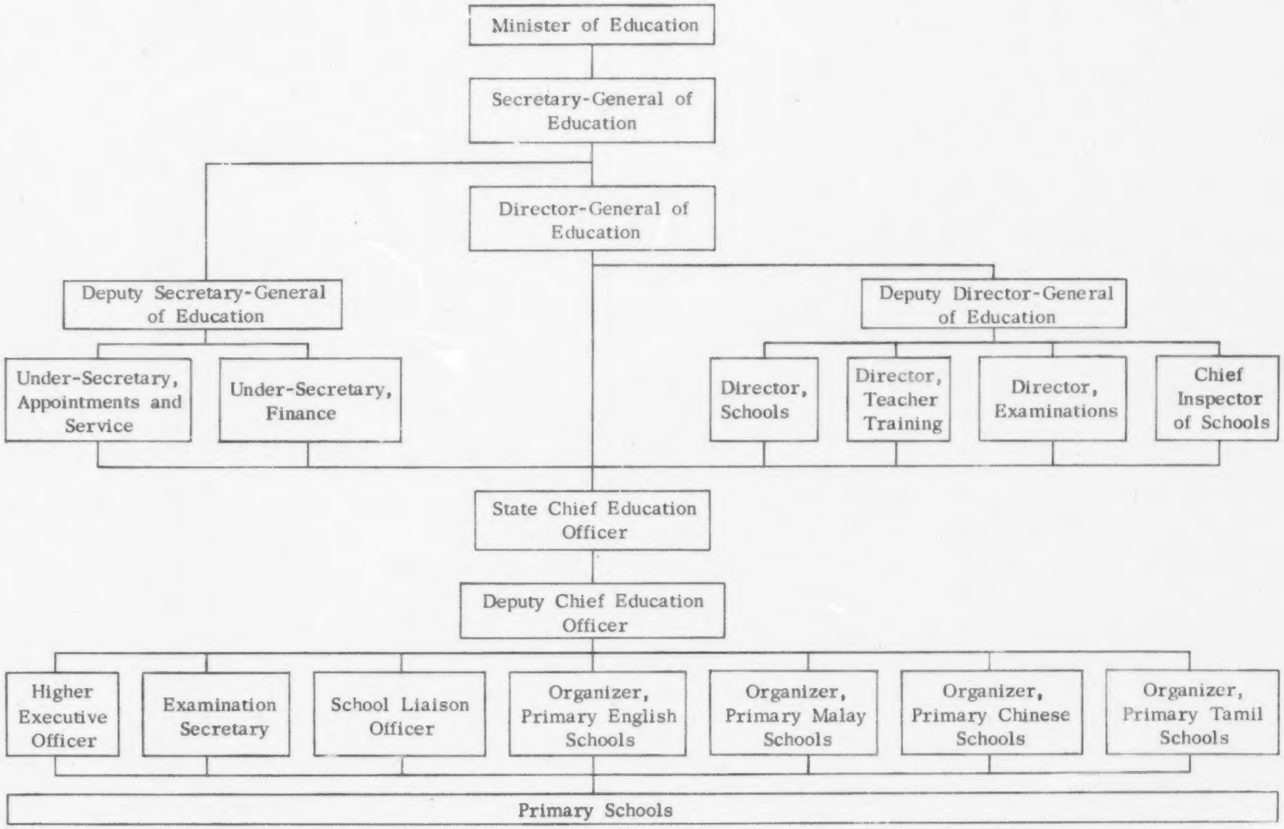
Almost all the primary schools in Malaysia are assisted schools. The assisted schools are either government-owned or privately-owned. In the case of the former, it is fully assisted both in its recurrent and capital expenditure, and any construction work is undertaken by the Public Works Department and expenditure met by the Ministry of Education. In the case of the latter, although it is fully assisted in terms of recurrent expenditure, the Government gives grants to meet the costs of capital projects undertaken by the school. With this grant the school is left on its own to complete the project. A few private primary schools do not receive any form of financial assistance from the Government, although they have to conform to certain regulations regarding the management and administration of the schools.

A. Administration and control

Education, including primary education, is a federal subject and the Ministry of Education is charged with the implementation of the national education policy and programme. Chart 1 illustrates the general administrative organization for primary education. The Minister of Education is responsible for making decisions on all policy matters either singly or in consultation with his Cabinet colleagues. The Secretary-General is the chief executive officer of the Ministry. The Director-General of Education is the principal professional officer and is responsible for advising the Minister and the Secretary-General on all professional matters as well as directing the administration of the professional divisions in the Ministry and the State Chief Education Officers in professional matters. The State Chief Education Office is the operating arm of the Ministry. Besides being the chief executive for the implementation of the educational policy in the State, the State Chief Education Officer is responsible for all administrative functions of his office. He is also responsible for the proper management of all schools, including private schools, in his State. Each primary school is administered by a head teacher who is appointed by the Chief Education Officer either in consultation with or following the direction of the Ministry of Education.

The infrastructural resources for primary educational planning, management and administration and supervision are provided by the Ministry of Education and the State Education Departments. The Educational Planning and Research Division of the Ministry of Education is

Chart I - Organization of the administration of primary education


Minister of Education
Secretary-General of Education
Director-General of Education
Deputy Secretary-General of Education
Under-Secretary, Appointments and Service
Under-Secretary, Finance
Deputy Director-General of Education
Director, Schools
Director, Teacher Training
Director, Examinations
Chief Inspector of Schools
State Chief Education Officer
Deputy Chief Education Officer
Higher Executive Officer
Examination Secretary
School Liaison Officer
Organizer, Primary English Schools
Organizer, Primary Malay Schools
Organizer, Primary Chinese Schools
Organizer, Primary Tamil Schools
Primary Schools

responsible for all aspects of educational planning and research, whilst the Educational Development Centre is being established to undertake all aspects of curricular research, planning, development and evaluation. The Schools Division of the Ministry of Education oversees the implementation of educational policies and programmes. The Teacher Training Division of the Ministry of Education undertakes the pre- and in-service training of teachers. Direct administration of primary schools is undertaken by the State Education Departments. The Federal Inspectorate of Schools, a division of the Ministry of Education, provides overall supervision of the quality of education in schools.

B. Size of primary education, West Malaysia, school year 1972 (public and private schools)

Primary school-age population :- Age group 6+ to 11+	1 629 502
Total enrolment in primary school (as at 31.1.1972)	1 500 152
Proportion of girls in total primary enrolment	47.7 %
Primary enrolment ratio	92.1 %
Total number of teachers	46 833
Proportion of female teachers	38.7 %
Proportion of trained teachers	88.4 %
Pupil-teacher ratio	32
Total number of schools	4 401
Recurrent public expenditure on education, all levels	M $528 339 664
i) proportion spent on primary education	47.2 %
ii) primary per-pupil cost	M $167.56

C. Medium of instruction

Primary education is provided through four media of instruction, namely, Malay (Bahasa Malaysia), English, Chinese and Tamil. Parents are at liberty to select the medium of instruction they favour for their children. For any one primary school, one medium of instruction is used. In the English-medium schools, however, the medium of instruction is progressively being converted to Bahasa Malaysia with Grade I being taught in Malay in January 1970. By 1975 there will be no more English-medium primary schools.

D. Procedures of evaluation and promotion of pupils

Promotion of pupils from one grade to the next is automatic. Retention of pupils for a second year in a grade is seldom practised.

Each school conducts its own evaluation programme for its pupils. Such evaluation of pupil progress may be conducted monthly, termly, half-yearly or yearly. In most schools all four periodic types of evaluation are conducted.

A centralized assessment examination is conducted yearly in October for pupils in Grade V by the Examination Syndicate, which is a division of the Ministry of Education. This examination was first introduced in 1967 and is designed to measure pupils' attainment at the end of the fifth year of primary school so that measures could be taken to correct the pupils' weaknesses in their final year in primary schools before they are sent to secondary schools.

The Ministry is currently studying the desirability and the feasibility of some form of centralized assessment examination at the Grade III level in order to assist teachers in identifying early pupil's needs for remedial instruction.

II. Policies, problems and experiments

During the First Malaysia Plan period (1965-1970), considerable progress were made in primary education, as reflected in improved survival rates and growth in enrolments by nearly 17% over the five-year period.

In the Second Malaysia Plan, the Government will continue its policy of providing 9 years of schooling for every child. The Government will seek to enhance the quality of primary education through improvements in content and teaching methods, increasing teacher supply, provision of supporting services and expansion of classroom facilities.

During the Second Malaysia Plan period, improvements will concentrate on four major areas:

a) consolidation of the education system to promote national integration and unity;

b) orientation and expansion of education and training programmes towards meeting the manpower needs of the country;

c) improvement of the quality of education for the building of a progressive society oriented towards modern science and technology; and

d) improvement of the research, planning and implementation capability to meet the above objectives.

The main programmes in respect of national integration and unity are:

1) the use, in stages, of Bahasa Malaysia (the national language) as the main medium of instruction in schools;
2) closing the gap in educational opportunities among regions and races;
3) the eventual integration of the education systems of the East Malaysian States with the national system.

Sources of funding for the various programmes for the improvement of primary education as well as all levels of education come essentially from Government revenues. Some of the development projects will be financed from loans raised nationally and from international agencies.

A. Orientation of primary education

While there is no specific official statement of the aims of primary education per se, official statements of objectives of educational policy indicate that the goals of primary education are two-fold: firstly, the aim of primary education is the development of national consciousness through the development of an understanding and appreciation of national unity. A corollary to this objective is the acquisition of basic communication skills particularly in the national language. The primary goal of primary education is the development of patriotic and useful citizenship in a democratically just and progressive society. Secondly, the aim of primary education is the provision of proper conditions for the physical, emotional, social and aesthetic development of the primary school child, whilst at the same time shaping desirable attitudes and developing worthwhile habits and skills for healthy and productive living.

The objectives of the educational policy which have led to considerable revision of the primary curriculum are:

a) consolidation of the education system to promote national integration and unity; and
b) improvement of the quality of education for the building of a progressive society oriented towards modern science and technology.

The school curriculum is considered to be the lever to achieve the desired national unity. One broad strategy employed at present is more related to form than to substance in the curriculum. That form is to employ progressively more Bahasa Malaysia, the national language, as the main medium of instruction for all subjects on the ground that a national language will make major contributions to national unity. At present all subjects except a required second language, which is English, are taught in Bahasa Malaysia in the former English-medium primary schools in Grades I, II and III. In addition, social studies, physical and health education and civics are presented in the national language throughout all levels of primary education. In the Chinese and Tamil-medium primary schools, Bahasa Malaysia is a compulsory subject. In line with this, revised and common syllabuses in Bahasa Malaysia and English are used in all primary schools in the country.

In addition to the national language, there are at least two major matters of substance that should be mentioned. The first is again related to national unity. The substantive matter related to national unity can be illustrated by the new civics syllabus for upper primary schools, one of the first in a set of attempts to organize a body of information and a 'delivery' system which on balance is as much affective or dispositional as it is cognitive or informational. Without going into the details of that effort, two important points need to be mentioned. It is difficult for education alone to change attitudes and to develop values. However, related information and knowledge is a prerequisite to attitude change. Therefore a careful and efficient combination of the cognitive and the affective is required.

The second substantive curriculum matter can be simply stated. The traditional interpretation of 'curriculum' in Malaysian schools has tended to be the narrow one of prescribed courses of study although, of course, other aspects of the curriculum in terms of total learning experiences of the child under the school's direction were and are very much in evidence. Also at present there is a great deal in the curriculum and in the present practice that is there just because it has always been there. Part of it is relevant and should remain, but some of it needs to go and other portions need major surgery or revision if it is to survive. The Primary Mathematics and Science Project, which is now in its third year of operation, is an attempt to make the substance and the 'delivery' system more relevant and effective in terms of the national needs and aspirations. A similar effort is also being made to make the social studies programme in line with the national educational objectives.

1. Problems

Before referring to some of the problems, two general observations may be in order. Firstly, the educational planners and managers in Malaysia face problems not unlike those whose solutions are described as 'escaping between the horns of a dilemma'. While the new techniques in education seemingly offer ways to improve present situations, they often require human, technical and financial resources which are scarce indeed, and often exceed the available supply. Furthermore, imported new ideas need to be very carefully evaluated and "acclimatized" to the setting in which they are to be applied. Secondly, the educational planners and managers need to weigh competing claims on the limited resources available from many points of view.

In curriculum development, criteria need to be developed to help in deciding which problems will have to be tackled first and on what scale. The educational planners and managers need to define more clearly the broader goals by translating policy matters affecting the primary school curriculum into more specific targets. Moreover, the classic principle in curriculum development, which calls for a balance between the needs of the child, the needs of the society, and the needs of the subject, requires a sharper definition and a more systematic study if the principle is to be more than a mere slogan.

The organization for revising syllabi appears to be working satisfactorily. At present, however, the efforts appear to be ad hoc and too intuitive. Questions need to be asked such as: is it possible to get wider involvement of experienced teachers in suggesting specifications or reviewing those written by others? Is it necessary to involve the syllabus committee in the actual writing of the revision? If not, what arrangements for monitoring and reviewing of the actual writing are needed? How can the teachers' attention be called to the fact that the content in education should be used to help change students in ways which are not specified in the topics and other suggestions in the syllabi? Will a specification of the outcomes of education in behavioural terms help? If so, can a 'package of intent' be organized effectively, which combines clear objectives, relevant content, and efficient procedures into a meaningful whole for teachers, so meaningful that they will use it more from desire than from dictum?

With regard to the school curriculum for national unity and the related matter of Bahasa Malaysia as the medium of instruction, there is a great deal which must be done. Careful monitoring of these strategies is needed, as well as a great deal more information in order to know clearly what the effects of these strategies are so that they can be improved. The same can be said of all curriculum areas developed and the strategies employed. The difference in this case is not one of rationale but of priority.

Scholars of all disciplines increasingly call for opportunities to demonstrate at all levels how their disciplines offer fresh insights into contemporary problems and provide more valuable instructional experiences as well. Other groups vie for instructional time in the hope that students can be formally exposed to ideas bearing on national development, on human health and welfare, on the preservation or improvement of our environment, and other increasingly critical and complicated aspects of our lives. And yet there is just a limited amount of instructional time available and nearly all of it is presently utilized in one way or another.

Another major problem is that the approach to curriculum revision is too conservative. As a consequence, when new information and new demands appear, often the shortest way out is taken, with the hope that the old demands can be reconciled with the new by taking the so-called 'enrichment' route. Furthermore, there is a tendency to assume that every topic or body need to be developed and presented over a long time, spiralled and otherwise revisited level by level for students to get the message. Too often ideas continue to be elaborated and extended unnecessarily, seldom distinguishing what students must or should know from what it might be desirable or 'well' for them to know.

Regarding the curriculum evaluation per se, more work has to be done. A more serious evaluation problem at the moment is that the results of the regular examinations such as the Grade V assessment examination do not carry the same meaning from year to year. This is also true for special-purpose instruments which have been developed. Results vary from year to year merely as a function of the well-known fact that no two forms of an examination are exactly alike. This fact places severe restrictions on the ability to discuss trends over time. However, the problem of equating one set of results with another for the Grade V assessment examination is at the moment in the process of partial solution. Human resources are now available to make certain that future curriculum evaluation efforts utilize the best techniques possible. In the past the evaluation efforts were too often post hoc. There is no reason why future efforts in curriculum development should not profit a great deal by using techniques of the so-called formative evaluation as materials are developed, and later by using summative evaluation to find out the effects of fully developed curriculum packages.

Turning to research efforts, the present problem appears to be similar to educational research elsewhere, but compounded by scarce financial resources. There exists a reluctance to invest even a small proportion of the educational budget in research, perhaps through misunderstanding and 'skepticism'. Despite the scarce resources, the problem will have to be tackled. In doing so with a modest beginning effort, the question of priorities arises. This problem must be solved and some research efforts will have to be commissioned, which can shed light on the development of new approaches to current critical problems.

At present not enough information has been routinely gathered and systematically organized, with which to make better decisions. In short, what is needed is a system not unlike a management information system for education as a whole. Justifications will have to be given to the expenditures before additional proportions of the Federal Government budget can be expected.

2. New developments

(a) The Educational Development Centre

The Educational Development Centre which is in the process of being established will have the following functions:

i) to identify national needs and aspirations and to translate them into curricular specifications;

ii) to conduct curriculum research and experimentation;

iii) to plan and develop curricular programmes for continuous, systematic and qualitative development in education;

iv) to develop and produce curriculum materials such as syllabuses of instruction, teachers' guidelines, pupils' learning materials, evaluation instruments, audio-visual aids and prototype science and other equipment;

v) to disseminate information on curricular innovations and practices to teachers in schools and others in the community;

vi) to organize pilot in-service teacher education courses to communicate innovative changes and revisions;

vii) to conduct surveys and analyses of significant world-wide trends and developments in curriculum specifications and teaching practices.

The nucleus of the Educational Development Centre has already been set up to co-ordinate all curriculum revision activities currently undertaken by the Ministry of Education. Plans have been drawn up for the gradual expansion of systematic curriculum research, development and evaluation activities, as the Centre's physical facilities are built up and the professional staff trained. It is anticipated that by 1975 the Educational Development Centre will be fully operational.

(b) School Health Programme

Realizing that a considerable amount of educational wastage may be the result of pupils' poor health and non-readiness for formal instruction, the Ministry has launched a comprehensive programme for the improvement of pupils' health through the School Health Programme which has the following components : (a) school health services particularly to rural primary schools ; (b) health education and healthful school living in the school curriculum ; and (c) school community co-operation for health. Programmes have already been implemented for the eventual retraining of all primary school teachers to become health education teachers and community health co-workers.

(c) Guidance service

Guidance as a specialized service was introduced in schools only in recent years. The guidance programme was launched both in the primary and secondary schools in 1965. In all schools cumulative record cards are kept relating to the academic progress and personal background of each pupil. These cards provide the means of understanding the pupils' growth and development. Further, in all schools one teacher has been appointed to be responsible for co-ordinating and supervising guidance. Hitherto the guidance programme has tended to be concentrated in the secondary schools, but increasing emphasis is being given to establishing guidance services in the primary schools. It is realized that children whose parents belong to the lower socio-economic group are at a considerable disadvantage when they begin schooling. This initial disadvantage would tend to accumulate and be compounded unless the problem is recognized and appropriate steps are taken to help these children. While it is true to say that guidance in Malaysia is still in its infancy, it ranks high in the hierarchy of priorities of the Ministry of Education.

(d) Utilization of behavioural outcomes

Regarding the effectiveness of primary school instruction, it is intended to pursue the matter of behavioural outcomes seriously to see if they will help. The prospects of coupling that effort with the existing syllabi and teachers' guides and pupils' worksheets like those developed by the Primary Science and Mathematics Project, are promising. The utilization of behavioural objective appears practical and feasible over the relatively short term. An attempt to use the technique in reporting test results is under way and should contribute to the improvement of feedback from examination results.

(e) Compensatory Education Project

The Government of Malaysia is committed to the provision of equal opportunities for economic and social development for all its people. Available evidence today indicates that the child from a home background which is economically and socially deprived and which lacks proper orientation towards formal learning has a low probability of success at school. It is also generally recognized that deprivation starts to build up at an early age and progressively limits and eventually discourages the entry of the disadvantaged child into the mainstream of productive social and economic life. The Ministry of Education has taken cognisance of the problem as it exists in the primary schools, and has just launched the Compensatory Education Project which is expected to be completed in three years at an estimated cost of M $1 million. The Project aims not only at assisting primary school children with special educational needs and problems arising from social and economic deprivations, but also at preventing a child with learning difficulties from becoming a slow learner. The Project covers both the primary school stage and the pre-school stage. It is concerned with conditions of learning as they arise in the institutions (pre-school and primary school) as well as those prevailing outside the institutions (home and community). These conditions will be considered not only in the urban setting but also in the predominantly rural setting to be in line with the nation's efforts at overcoming the economic and social imbalances among its people.

(f) Improvement of the instructional delivery system

Regarding the instructional delivery system for ensuring the effectiveness of primary school education programmes, efforts similar to the Primary Mathematics and Science Project, the use of educational television for in-service teacher training, and later related efforts of the Educational Development Centre, and existing efforts of the Federal Inspectorate of Schools will be continued and expanded.

B. Resources

With the establishment of universal primary education, problems like inequalities by regions and by social and regional groupings need special attention. Problems imposed by geographical factors can be eased by proper mapping of schools. However, this will entail considerable outlay of planners' time and the provision of financial resources for the replacement of sub-standard physical facilities in the rural areas and the provision of more adequate and up-to-date facilities. Social disabilities, which may be caused by poverty and the attitudes of parents, is a problem which need further study and quick solutions in the light of the Government's plan to restructure the society to promote a more equitable distribution of social facilities and economic opportunities and activities.

Although the problem of dropout is now not as acute in Malaysia at the first level of education as it was a few years ago, the enrolment ratio of 92.1% is still short of the target to provide universal primary education.

How to improve the effectiveness of primary education is still a problem for the Government to solve. While the authorities are concerned with the problem of primary school dropouts, they are equally concerned with other forms of wastage either caused by the pupils' inability to receive education due to poor health and poor orientation to formal education or to the irrelevance of the primary school curriculum.

Teachers' quality is a persistent problem. While almost all teachers in primary schools have received some form of pre-service training, the upgrading and up-dating of their knowledge and skills, particularly in view of the need to make the primary curriculum more relevant to life and not just as a preparation for secondary education, is a problem of considerable magnitude, both in terms of the number to be retrained and the types of training needed.

With the programme to convert the English-medium primary schools to schools using Bahasa Malaysia as the medium of instruction, a programme has been initiated to retrain 5,020 teachers who are not fluent in the language. By 1974 it is expected that all the teachers who are and will be teaching in the former English-medium primary schools will be competent to teach in Bahasa Malaysia. In addition, in-service courses, oriented towards the new emphasis on the teaching of science and mathematics, the national language, English as a second language, and the curricular emphasis for national integration and unity, will be conducted to upgrade and up-date primary school teachers, particularly those from the rural primary schools.

By 1970, over 90% of the primary school-age population was enrolled. An additional 3,830 classrooms were constructed under the First Malaysia Plan. While the number of schools increased from 4,366 to 4,380, the main effort was concentrated on the replacement of sub-standard schools and the amalgamation of under-utilized schools, mainly in the rural areas.

In West Malaysia, classroom facilities and teacher supply will be further expanded and improved substantially in the rural areas to meet the projected increase in enrolment from the present 1,500,152 to 1,605,000 by 1975. In East Malaysia, provision has been made for the creation of an additional 24,000 places in primary schools in Sarawak, and plans have been finalized for the construction of 778 classrooms in Government schools and a further 100 in aided schools in Sabah.

An initial attempt has been made by the Primary Science and Mathematics Project to develop comprehensive teachers' guides and pupils' worksheets and simple instructional equipment for the primary schools. This activity will be enlarged to include other areas of the primary curriculum during the next few years.

Public and private enterprises are the main sources of supply for the textbooks used in primary schools. The Dewan Bahasa dan Pustaka (Literature and Language Agency, a quasi-government body devoted to the promotion of the use of Malay as the national language) is actively engaged in the production of textbooks in the national language. Private publishers, both local and foreign, are also suppliers of textbooks in the national language as well as in the other languages of instruction.

To judge from public comments, there is need for lowering the cost of textbooks and by standardization and other means to prolong the period of their use. Early in 1972, the Ministry of Education was able to gain the co-operation of textbook publishers and distributors to reduce the price of all textbooks by 10 %. Moreover, school authorities are not allowed to change any textbook unless it has been used for at least three years. The Ministry has published a recommended list of textbooks to be used in schools. The list provides for a comprehensive coverage of subjects, levels and titles.

In all these broader opportunities and existing and proposed programmes, the specific form of a plan or the elements of a system are less important perhaps than the fact that they have been developed, and the process of their development is known. It is with this cautious optimism that it may be said that Malaysia has come of age educationally, particularly in the field of primary education.

Statistics of primary education in West Malaysia
(public and private schools)

Table 1. Trends in primary school-age population and primary enrolment

School year	Population of primary school age (6+ to 11+)	Total primary enrolment	Enrolment ratio (%)	Annual enrolment increase (%)
1965	1 394 643	1 234 505	88.5	
1966	1 422 589	1 281 047	90.1	3.8
1967	1 450 543	1 323 924	91.3	3.3
1968	1 486 334	1 371 874	92.3	3.6
1969	1 522 124	1 398 613	91.9	1.9
1970	1 557 918	1 429 649	91.8	2.2
1971	1 593 708	1 464 889	91.9	2.5
1972	1 629 502	1 500 152	92.1	2.4

Table 2. Enrolment by grade and sex, and repeaters*
school year 1972

Grade	Total enrolment	
	Both sexes	Girls
I	268 956	128 532
II	270 942	130 490
III	256 771	124 507
IV	246 623	118 439
V	241 960	114 283
VI	214 900	99 888
Total	1 500 152	716 139

* The number of repeaters in primary school is nil, as the system provides automatic promotion at this level.

Table 3. Trends in the teaching staff and number of schools

School year	Total number of teachers	Number of female teachers	Percentage female teachers	Pupil-teacher ratio	Number of schools
1965	43 498	15 222	35.0	28	4 706
1966	44 942	16 112	35.9	29	4 689
1967	44 605	15 963	35.8	31	4 619
1968	44 326	15 735	35.5	31	4 459
1969	45 175	16 532	36.6	31	4 457
1970	45 307	16 912	37.3	32	4 443
1971	45 699	17 520	38.7	32	4 411
1972	46 833	18 135	38.7	32	4 401

Table 4. Distribution of school by type and size, school year 1972

	Number of schools	Enrolment involved
A. By type of schools :		
1. Complete	4 401	1 500 152
Incomplete [1]	-	-
2. Urban	834	594 574
Rural	3 567	905 578
3. Public	4 342	1 492 780
Private	59	7 372
4. Single sex	237	85 723
Co-educational	4 164	1 414 429
5. One-teacher schools	72	...
Two-teacher schools	...	...
B. By size (number of pupils) [2]		
50 or less	271	Not available
51 - 99	547	
100 - 199	1 086	
200 - 299	792	
300 - 399	450	
400 - 499	311	
500 and over	891	

1. Schools not offering all grades of the primary course.

2. Data for 1971, exlcuding private schools.

Bulletin of the Unesco Regional Office
for Education in Asia
Number 14, 1973

PRIMARY EDUCATION IN PAKISTAN

by Sheikh Muizzuddin

The development of primary education in Pakistan was considered imperative soon after independence in 1947. Different schemes were considered, but due to financial and administrative problems, the targets of expansion could not be achieved. No real programme was launched to make primary education widespread, and not much was achieved in raising the percentage of literacy in the country during the last 25 years. Textbooks, although under the Government control, could not be radically improved, and the administration of education continued on the lines inherited from the British. The essay type of examinations also did not change.

Educational research was started on a modest scale at the Institute of Education and Research in 1960, and there is urgent need of its expansion to guide the methods of spreading primary education in line with the national desires and goals. Improvement of the examination system was also experimented with considerable success at the Institute.

In the "Education Policy for 1972-80 endorsed by the present Government, schemes are being proposed to promote universal primary education and raise the quality of education at a reduced cost.

When Pakistan emerged as an independent State in 1947 as a result of the partition of British India, it inherited an education system which was the British legacy to the sub-continent, based upon Lord Macauley's theory of downward filtration which aimed at political ends along with the dissemination of knowledge among the masses. It had been designed with the purpose of maintaining order of the British rule and ensuring a regular supply of personnel for the Government machinery. The educational edifice was built from the top: universities were established first, and the higher levels of education (especially the universities) were given the most weight. Primary education was neglected.

Bibliographical references will be found at the end of the article.

The independence of Pakistan brought new hopes, expectations, problems, and responsibilities in its wake. One of the most important and difficult tasks of national reconstruction was that of providing education to the vast and illiterate masses. In November 1947, three months after independence, a conference of leading educationists in the country was convened at Karachi to survey the existing and future opportunities in the educational field, and to make adequate provisions in the light of the special requirements of the people. One of their recommendations was to provide free and compulsory primary education within the shortest possible time. The objective of universal free primary education was accepted as a basic principle of the State policy in the national planning.

The Commission on National Education in 1959 recommended that the target should be to achieve five years' compulsory schooling within a period of 10 years, and 8 years' compulsory schooling within a total period of 15 years. The Unesco's Regional Meeting of Representatives of Asian Member States on Primary and Compulsory Education held at Karachi in 1960 adopted the plan of attaining 7 years' universal compulsory education in all Asian countries by 1980. [11]

The "Asian Model" was drawn up in 1965. It aimed at universal coverage of the primary school age-group by 1980. But in the case of Pakistan it was estimated that only 45 % of the children were in school at the time, and the Model, therefore, could not be applied to Pakistan.

The Government then adopted 1975 as the target year for achieving universal primary education of five years' duration, to be further extended to 8 years by 1985. This proved to be too ambitious because the target of accommodating 70 % of the children of the school age-group in primary schools by 1970, as envisaged by the Third Five-Year Plan (1965-70), could not be achieved. As revealed in the "New Education Policy" (1970), out of the total number of 20 million children of the school age, not more than 9 million (45 %) were enrolled in primary schools. *

In the "New Education Policy" (1970), the Government recommended a phased programme for introducing universal elementary education up to Grade VIII. It was proposed to create additional facilities to cover about 70 % of the children of primary school age (5-10) by 1975, and 100 % by 1980. *

According to the "Educational Policy for 1972-1980", [6] it is proposed that education be free and universal up to Grade X for all children throughout the country, and this would be achieved in two phases. The first phase started in October 1972: education up to Grade VIII has been made free for boys and girls in both Government schools and

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* These figures were for combined East and West Pakistan in 1970.

schools run by local bodies. In the second phase, starting in October 1974, free education will be extended to Grades IX and X in all schools.[6] Depending upon the response, it is anticipated that primary education up to Grade V will become universal for boys by 1979 and for girls by 1984. It is also expected that elementary education will become universal up to Grade VIII, for boys by 1982 and for girls by 1987.

I. The system of primary education

Primary education has been made free by the new Government of Pakistan in October, 1972. Compulsory education places a direct responsibility on parents to send their children to schools on pain of punishment. Simultaneously, it entails an obligation for the Government to provide facilities for schooling.

Generally, children at the age of five are admitted to Grade I and complete primary schooling (Grades I-V) at the age of 10. The dropout rate caused by retardation, stagnation and failures is very high. Eighty per cent of the children in the primary grades never reach Grade V, but drop out, resulting in wastage of human and financial resources, the cost of education being raised by about three to four times the basic cost.[1]

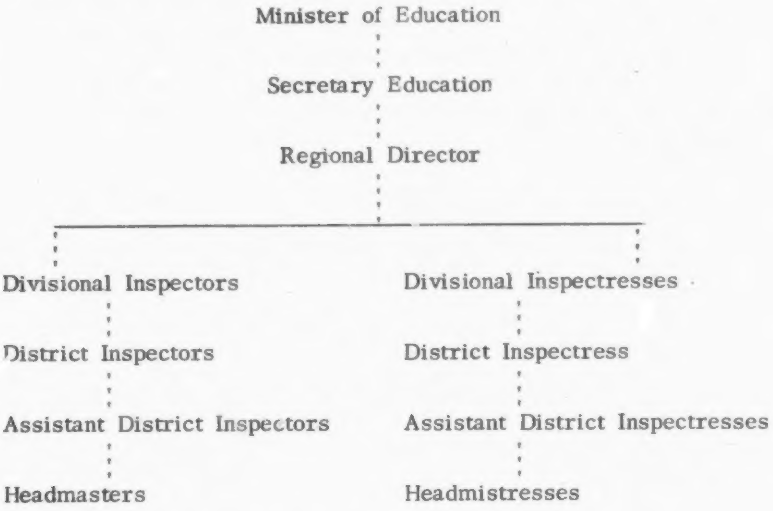
There are three main types of primary schools in Pakistan, run respectively by the Provincial Governments, the local bodies, and the missionary institutions. All are regular and graded. The medium of instruction in most of the schools in Urdu, except in some special English medium institutions. Most of the schools in rural areas are single-sex; even in urban areas only a few schools are co-educational.

One-teacher, two-teacher and multi-teacher schools are evenly distributed in the rural areas. In urban areas, one teacher per class is generally provided in primary schools. Most of the private schools were nationalized in October 1972 and taken over by the Provincial Governments in the Punjab and Sind. The nationalization of such schools was accomplished in the North West Frontier Province in the early 1950s.

A. Administration and control

Primary education in each district is under the administrative and supervisory control of the District Inspector of Schools. He is the executive officer for the district, but has the responsibilities of supervising instruction and examinations in the primary grades, and also of preparing schemes for the expansion of primary education in the district. The District Inspector is an employee of the Education Department in the Provincial Government. He is assisted by a number of Assistant Inspectors, for physical education and for technical education. An Assistant Inspector carries out supervisory functions in the 50 to 200 primary schools in his area. A similar administrative set-up functions separately for girls' education.

The following diagram shows the administrative set-up of primary education in a province.


Minister of Education
Secretary Education
Regional Director
Divisional Inspectors
District Inspectors
Assistant District Inspectors
Headmasters
Divisional Inspectresses
District Inspectress
Assistant District Inspectresses
Headmistresses

B. Size of primary education in (West) Pakistan [5, 13]

Primary school-age population	9.6 million	(1972)
Total enrolment in primary schools	4.6 million	"
Proportion of girls in total primary enrolment	24 %	"
Primary enrolment ratio	48 %	"
Total number of teachers	95,000	(1970)
Proportion of female teachers	22 %	"
Proportion of trained teachers	91.6 %	"
Pupil-teacher ratio	35	"
Total number of schools	40,000	"
Pupil expenditure on education, all levels	7,000 million Rupees (of which 2,000 million capital expenditure)	

C. Procedure of evaluation and promotion of pupils

The responsibility of evaluating and promoting pupils from Grades I to V in the primary schools lies with the Assistant District Inspectors, who administer promotion tests to the pupils. The tests are generally of the essay type. In the middle and high schools, the promotion examinations are held by the school. A student who passes the Grade V examination in a primary school is issued a certificate for admission to Grade VI. According to the "Educational Policy for 1972-80", the promotion of students from Grades I to IX must be automatic instead of dependent upon the result of the annual examinations. Periodic tests are to be held by the teachers both for evaluation and instruction.

II. Orientation of primary education

The goals and aims of primary education as stated in the Curriculum for primary schools in Pakistan[2] are briefly the following:

i) to provide education which will develop the moral, physical and mental aspects of the child's personality;

ii) to equip the child, according to his abilities and aptitudes, with the basic knowledge and skills necessary for an individual as well as for a citizen, and which should also be useful for further education;

iii) to awaken in the child a sense of civic responsibilities and patriotism;

iv) to lay in the child the foundation of desirable attitudes, including habits of industry, personal integrity, curiosity and healthy physical activity.

The following two objectives, out of those accepted by Unesco, have also been considered in framing the curriculum:

i) to develop international understanding and a spirit of universal brotherhood;

ii) to inculcate a scientific attitude.

Since the creation of Pakistan, efforts have been made to shape appropriate curricula. The first Educational Conference (1947) emphasized the need for an education which should preserve the moral and spiritual values of Islam, inculcate in students the principles of tolerance, benevolence and universal brotherhood, and at the same time be suited to the wishes of the people. As a result of the recommendations of this Conference, a six-year plan for education was formulated. The guidelines suggested in this plan were followed up to

1959 when a Commission on National Education was set up to develop a policy suited to the needs of that time. This Commission recommended some radical changes. Curriculum committees for primary and secondary education were constituted. They formulated objectives and guidelines for curriculum development and instructional purposes. The "Educational Policy for 1972-80" also stresses the need for the reorganization and reorientation of curricula and syllabi at all levels in accordance with the growing needs of the society.

There are multifarious problems being faced in the revision of the usual teaching-learning processes in Pakistan. A few of the problems are listed in brief:

i) Research has to be conducted for identifying the patterns of biological, sociological and psychological needs of children in the context of Pakistan environment.

ii) Difficulties in making the students receptive to Islamic values, to their social duties as well as to technology have to be removed.

iii) Co-ordination between the educational and other social agencies which promote the cause of education is to be planned.

iv) Follow-up studies on the curricula need to be carried out in order to know the results of implementing the new schemes.

Research studies on primary education have mainly been conducted at the Institute of Education and Research, Lahore, since 1960. A study to find the basic Urdu vocabulary of West Pakistan's pupils in Grades I to VIII was conducted by the Institute in the years 1963-66, and the results were compiled class-wise for the districts and regions of the four provinces of West Pakistan.

In order to familiarize primary teachers with the content and methodology of different subjects, a science guide in English was prepared after a pilot study, translated into Urdu and Sindhi and distributed to about 100,000 primary teachers after a short training in its use; and a similar teachers' guide in mathematics is under print at the Institute.

The Institute also conducted studies on primary education, e.g. on students and teachers for the National Commission on Manpower and Education in the years 1968-70, and on facilities in schools in 1972.

A functional literacy pilot study on a sample of four schools has been completed, the aim of which was to produce materials covering the needed content in the shortest possible time, and a comprehensive literacy programme under the patronage of the Government is included in the Fourth Five-Year Plan.

Some other studies on programmed instruction, evaluation and administration have been conducted by the post-graduate students of the Institute.

III. Resources for universal primary education

Universal primary education in Pakistan is the responsibility of the Provincial Governments. The private sector's endeavours are also subsidized by the Government in the form of grants to recognized institutions. Some special schools are financed by the students through high fees paid by them. Formerly there was so little help from private enterprise in spreading education that the nationalization of schools was considered a necessary step towards making primary education universal in the shortest time. The main problems encountered are those relating to (i) finance, (ii) provision of buildings, (iii) supply of teachers, and (iv) production of textbooks and teaching materials.

A. Finance. After the nationalization, all the expenditure on primary education have to be met by the Provincial Governments. The schools run by local bodies (municipal committees) and special types of schools run by Christian organizations are financed out of their own resources.

At present less than 2 % of the G. N. P. is spent on education, and it is expected that by 1980 the total expenditure on education will represent about 4 % of the G. N. P. This comes close to the target recommended by Unesco for developing countries.

B. Buildings. The provision of buildings is the main item in the plans for opening new schools. A fairly large number of buildings have been constructed, but many fall short of the climatic requirements. Many schools have been established on the assurances given by the local communities to provide school buildings; many have come into existence and have continued functioning under the shade of trees and other improvised arrangements. This is one of the causes of the heavy drop-out rate and of the low standard of instruction in the primary schools.

The majority of schools have mats for the pupils to sit on, and only a few provide chairs. The main teaching aid is a blackboard. A major problem in the universalization of primary education will be to provide accommodations for additional enrolment. It is envisaged in the "Educational Policy for 1972-80" that 38,000 classrooms will be constructed in order to accommodate the increased enrolment.[6] Standard designs and specifications for various types and sizes of low-cost school buildings will be prepared, keeping in view the local conditions and the construction materials available in the neighbourhood.

C. Teachers. In West Pakistan, in 1947, about 50% of the primary teachers were trained, and this percentage went up to 92 in 1970; about 17% of the teaching force were women, and the percentage increased to about 22% in 1970. Education at the primary stage is segregated, and only female teachers are employed in the separate primary schools for girls.[5]

The universalization of elementary education (Grades I-VIII) will require about 225,000 additional teachers. The existing teacher training institutions will turn out about 75,000 teachers during the 8-year period ending in 1980. An additional 75,000 teachers will become available from the general stream of education in high schools and colleges where education is being introduced as an optional subject. The balance of 75,000 teachers will be provided by the establishment of a National Literacy Corps drawn from locally available employed persons, retired civil servants, ex-service men, and university and college students through the National Service Corps.

D. Textbooks and teaching materials. The general practice up to 1961 relating to textbooks in Pakistan was that authors and publishers were invited to submit books for various grades. The educational authorities, on the basis of review and assessment, rated these books and prescribed the best. Since 1961, textbook publication has come under the control of the Government. All types of textbooks, whether in Urdu or English, are written by selected authors and are now produced by the Provincial Textbook Boards.

The procedure for the prescription and publication of textbooks has been examined by a number of committees from time to time, and steps have been taken to improve the quality of the curriculum and the textbooks.[2] To begin with, the syllabi were revised during the years 1948-49. Books were written and published on the basis of competitions: different authors and publishers prepared a number of books, which, subject to their merits, were approved by the education authorities as textbooks and prescribed for different regions and districts. A further revision of the syllabi took place in the years 1953-54, and again the books were prepared on a competitive basis. The Curriculum Committees for primary and secondary education, set up on the recommendation of the Commission on National Education, again revised the curricula in 1960.

The Commission observed that most textbooks were written by subject specialists who lacked understanding of the problems involved in teaching school children. Besides, they were highly priced. The Commission therefore recommended that the Government play an active and central part in the production of textbooks for all levels. Textbook

Boards were thus established at the provincial level for the prescription of syllabi from Grade I to Grade VIII, preparation of textbooks, management of the printing of textbooks, and production of supplementary materials related to the textbooks and guidebooks for teachers.

In 1966 the curricula were again reviewed, and textbooks which had been used since 1961 were revised. During the period from 1967 to 1971 the curricula were revised twice, but still remain to be published. The "Educational Policy for 1972-80" has also stressed the need for the revision of the curricula "to eliminate overloading, to emphasize learning of concepts and skills, and to encourage observation, exploration, experimentation, practical work and creative expression". The implementation of this policy is in process: new curricula are being developed and tried out, and new books will be published after experimentation.

Supplementary books for various subjects such as science, social studies, Urdu, are available. They are produced by private enterprises and are sold at high prices in the open market, but are not widespread. In the "Educational Policy for 1972-80", it has been assured that textbooks and writing materials will be given free to primary school children according to a phased programme. Library books will also be provided by the Government to all the schools.

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PRIMARY EDUCATION IN THE PHILIPPINES

by Minda C. Sutaria

The growing awareness among Filipinos of the advantages of education, the high population growth rate and the steady increase in the Government appropriation for education have contributed to the rapid growth and improvement of the primary education system since its establishment.

The enormity of the system has given rise to problems in resource development, production, distribution and promotion which defy solution and militate against making primary education universal. Such problems stem from deficient financing which leads to inadequacy of classrooms, teacher quality, books, materials, facilities, supplies, and other infrastructural variables.

Measures taken towards solving these problems have been rendered inadequate by the rapid school population growth. Inputs from the private sector have helped ease the problems, but they do not suffice. The reorganization of the total education system may yet reduce the problems that plague the system.

The primary school curriculum is currently being reoriented to the demands of the New Society. Innovative scheduling has been adopted to make available larger blocks of time for work-oriented and civic action projects which are supportive of the goals of the present reform movement. The curriculum has been enriched to include objectives that are relevant to national development goals.

Primary education is fundamental for individual and social development. The Government and the people have evinced belief in this thesis by appropriating a tremendous portion of the yearly outlay for it, by helping equip the schools and by keeping a steadily increasing number of children in school.

1. The system of primary education

The system of primary education of the Philippines has expanded and improved tremendously since its establishment more than 7 decades ago. Its unprecedented growth during the recent decades may be attributed to the deepening awareness among the masses of the benefits education brings, the country's runaway population growth rate of 3.1%, which considerably increases school enrolment annually, and the steadily increasing budget appropriations for education, which reflects the interest of the Government in fulfilling the mandate of the 1935 Constitution[1] to "provide at least free public primary instruction..."

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[1] The new Constitution which was ratified on 17 January 1973 is now in effect.

Primary education in the Philippines consists of Grades I to VI, and most private and some public schools also operate kindergarten classes. It was a seven-grade course until 1940, when an acute school crisis led to the enactment of the Educational Act of 1940[1] which shortened primary education to six years. Thirteen years later, the Educational Act of 1953[2] restored Grade VII, but the stringency of funds has hampered the implementation of such provision. Only a few exclusive private schools in the large cities have been able to offer Grade VII.

Primary education is free and compulsory. The old and new Constitutions provide for free primary education, while the Educational Act of 1953 requires all parents to enrol their children in the school year following their seventh birthday and keep them in school until they have completed the primary course.

Compulsory attendance in school may be waived when the distance from the home of a child to the nearest school exceeds three kilometres and the school is not conveniently available to him, considering the existing means of transportation he has access to. It may also be waived when a child is mentally ill or physically unable to enter school, in which case a certificate of a duly licensed physician is sufficient evidence. Poor economic condition of a child's parents may be another justification for a waiver of compulsory school attendance.

School entrance age is seven. The feasibility of lowering it to six is currently being studied, since there is evidence that six-year old kindergarten pupils are ready for learning tasks in Grade I. Schools open in June. New pupils are admitted only during the designated enrolment period, and transfer from one school to another is allowed only at the beginning of each semester.

Primary schools are either public or private. The latter are organized and operated by private individuals or corporations. They do not receive direct financial aid from the Government, but are regulated and supervised by the State. They need to secure authorization from the Government to operate. If they comply with Government regulations within one year, they are granted Government recognition. The Secretary of Education and Culture issues the permits to operate and grants Government recognition to private schools upon the recommendation of the Director of Private Schools.

Private schools are either denominational or non-denominational. The former are owned and operated by churches or religious corporations, the majority of which are Roman Catholic. Religion is invariably a part of their curricula.

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[1] Commonwealth Act 856.

[2] Republic Act 896

Primary schools may be complete, i.e. offering Grades I to VI, and in many cases even kindergarten education; or incomplete, when they offer only some grades, such as Grades I and II, or I to IV. Some public schools in remote villages have only one or two teachers who teach either one or two grades each, or a multi-grade class.

All public primary schools are co-educational. Most private primary schools in the cities admit pupils of one sex, while those in the provinces generally accommodate pupils of both sexes.

A few special primary schools cater for retarded and physically handicapped children.

A. Administration and control

The Department of Education and Culture administers and controls primary schools through the Bureau of Public Schools and the Bureau of Private Schools. Each bureau is headed by a director who administers the schools through a system of superintendencies. The private primary schools are administered through the regional superintendents and supervisors, while the public primary schools are administered through the division superintendents and supervisors.

The centralized organizational set-up of the Department of Education and Culture depicted in the chart on the following page implies that both the public and private primary schools are governed by the same policies. The method of implementation of these policies may, however, vary with each bureau.

Steps are presently being undertaken to reorganize the Department of Education and Culture. When this is done, both the public and private schools will be administered through the proposed eleven regional offices and will have co-ordinative relationships with the new Bureau of Elementary Education. Under such a set-up, academic standards in both the public and private schools may be brought to comparable levels.

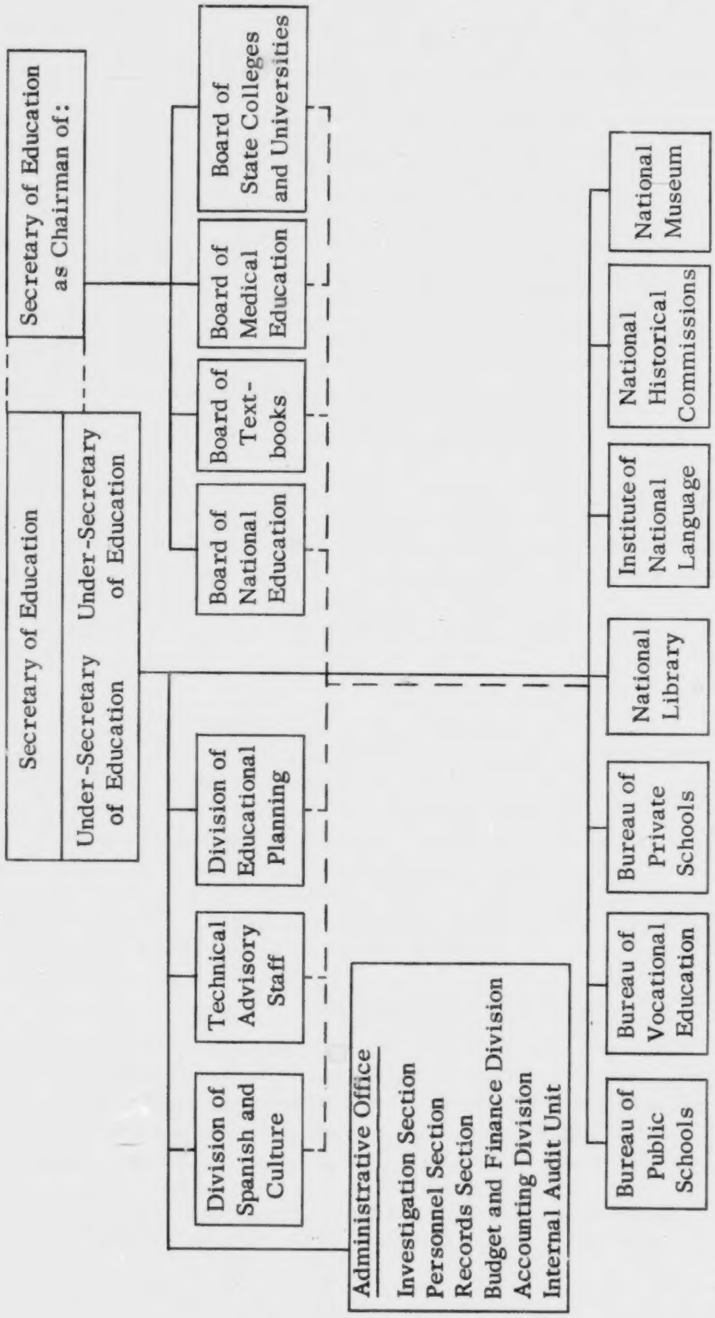
B. Size of primary education, school year 1970/1971

At an average increase of about 6% annually during the last fifteen years, primary school enrolment has increased to about eight million. This number, a far cry from the 150,000 enrolment in 1901, is unevenly dispersed in more than 40,000 public and private schools.

The following table gives an idea of the size of the primary education system in 1970/71:

Department of Education and Culture

Organization Chart*


Secretary of Education
Under-Secretary of Education
Under-Secretary of Education
Secretary of Education as Chairman of:
Board of National Education
Board of Text-books
Board of Medical Education
Board of State Colleges and Universities
Division of Spanish and Culture
Technical Advisory Staff
Division of Educational Planning
Administrative Office
Investigation Section
Personnel Section
Records Section
Budget and Finance Division
Accounting Division
Internal Audit Unit
Bureau of Public Schools
Bureau of Vocational Education
Bureau of Private Schools
National Library
Institute of National Language
National Historical Commissions
National Museum

* The Department will soon be reorganized.

Total enrolment in primary schools	6 897 589
Proportion of girls in total primary enrolment	48%
Total number of teachers (1969/70)	234 420
Proportion of female teachers (1968/69)	79%
Proportion of trained teachers	100%
Number of pupils per teacher (1969/70)	29
Total number of schools	40 023
Recurrent public expenditure in education, all levels (million Pesos)	994.43
i) proportion spent in primary education	87.31%
ii) primary per-pupil cost (Pesos)	102.17

In the private primary schools, retention of pupils is practised. In the public schools, however, a non-retention plan, better known as the continuous progression scheme, was adopted in 1971. In this scheme, every child is provided with educational experiences that ensure his optimum growth. Emphasis is placed on his maximum development rather than on achievement of arbitrary minimum requirements.

C. Medium of instruction

While it is a national policy to use the local vernacular as the medium of instruction in the first two grades, and to teach English and Pilipino as special subjects, private primary schools use English as the medium of instruction from Grade I. In the public schools, the medium of instruction shifts from the vernacular to English in Grade III. In some school divisions, where there are adequate instructional materials and teachers competent to teach in Pilipino, this is used as the medium of instruction from Grade I to Grade VI. In a few school divisions, Grade I classes are taught in Pilipino on an experimental basis.

II. Orientation of primary education

Primary education in the Philippines aims at "developing the spiritual, mental and physical capabilities of the child; providing him with experiences in the democratic way of life; and inculcating attitudes necessary for enlightened, patriotic, upright, and useful citizenry".[1] It is directed towards the provision of knowledge, skills, and attitudes which are fundamental to personal growth and modern living in a developing society. It is intended to provide literacy and develop in the individual cognitive power, numerical ability and communication skills.

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[1] Philippines. Board of National Education. *The revised elementary education programs of 1970.* Manila [1970?]

The benefits of primary education are expected to be reflected in increased social participation, better responsiveness to social change and greater employment possibilities.[1]

The present restructuring of Philippine society, in line with President Ferdinand E. Marcos' reform movement, has given rise to the need for reorienting the curricula at all levels of education to the imperatives of the New Society. The need to accelerate manpower development, which the New Society emphasizes, underscores the importance of primary education that can serve as a strong foundation for the development of desirable work attitudes and skills at the middle level. A step has been taken in this direction with the adoption of a work-oriented curriculum.

The primary school curriculum has been modified and enriched to include not only work-oriented objectives but also others that have relevance to national development goals. Its scope has been broadened to include population education, prevention of drug addiction, development of moral values, co-operative education, and land reform. An innovative system of scheduling has also been adopted, which allows larger blocks of time for work experiences designed to develop desirable attitudes towards work and work skills, to maximize the use of available facilities and equipment, and to make possible pupil participation in civic action projects in consonance with a youth civic action programme launched by the Department, which dovetails with the Government's youth and community development programme.

One type of innovative schedule introduced in several primary schools has been termed the "half-half" or "50-50" plan: in this scheme, all academic subjects are taken up either during the morning or afternoon session so that the other session can be devoted to work on a project; in the primary schools, this plan is generally followed once a week. Its impact has been found to be greater than when pupils worked on projects for one period five times a week.

The reorientation and enrichment of the primary school curriculum necessitates the development of new instructional materials and the revision and enrichment of existing materials, the retraining of teachers to raise their competence to a level that will make them capable of handling the reoriented and enriched curriculum with maximum efficiency and effectiveness, the acceleration of the production and distribution of materials, the improvement of evaluation procedures, the use of feedback strategies, and the intensification of supervision, to bring about a better teaching, and consequently, educational output that matches the primary education goals.

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[1] Philippines. Presidential Commission to Survey Philippine Education (PCSPC). *Education for national development, new patterns, new directions [education survey report].* Manila, 1970. p. 67

The implementation of these programmes can be inhibited by insufficiency of funds, inadequacy of the personnel to institute the changes desired and to perform the new tasks that such changes may require, lack of co-ordination among the personnel, and unreceptiveness to change on the part not only of the teachers, but also of the parents and the community.

The reorganization of the education system, which will result in the consolidation of public and private primary schools under one bureau and a better matching between the man and the job, constitutes a reform calculated to improve primary education in the country.

The staffing patterns of the Bureau of Elementary Education and of the new regional offices through which the primary schools will be administered and supervised are being laid out. Simultaneously, the primary school curriculum is being reassessed to determine how it can be geared to national development goals in the context of the emerging New Society, and at the same time be made to attain the educational objectives articulated in the new Constitution:"... to inculcate love of country, teach the duties of citizenship and develop moral character, personal discipline, and scientific, technological, and vocational efficiency"

Programmes and projects supportive of these educational objectives and the national development goals are currently being identified, structured and made ready for implementation.

To obtain data that will be useful in the retraining of primary school teachers, the Bureau of Public Schools is presently undertaking a systems analysis of the four-year (1968-1972) national in-service training programme which involves its 21 regional in-service training centres. This project requires the services of a large complement of educational researchers and research aids. Since the Bureau does not have a sufficient number of qualified personnel to work on it, graduate students of education have been called upon to help, while some supervisory personnel who teach research methods part-time have volunteered to advise them. The graduate students will be allowed to present their work in the project to fulfil partial requirements for a mater's degree. Under such an arrangement, there is hope of completing the study and providing useful data in time for the operation of the primary education system in the reorganized set-up.

III. Resources for universal primary education

To achieve universal primary education and to maintain it at a high standard, the school population growth must be matched with a corresponding increase in educational resources. Where the resources do not increase as fast as the population growth, a school crisis is inevitable. In such a crisis, educating the pupils becomes a doubly difficult task, and consequently, the quality of education suffers.

The enormity of the primary education system has spawned problems in resource development, production, distribution and promotion, which continually defy solutions. As the school population multiplies, these problems grow in magnitude and measures taken to solve them soon become inadequate.

In spite of the fact that the primary schools receive a major portion of the total outlay for education, financing of primary education has been perennially deficient. Comparable data available indicate that financial support for primary education in the country is not nearly as adequate as in Malaysia where, for instance, the expenditure per pupil in 1962 was the equivalent of P.182 in contrast to P.82 only in the Philippines.

From the standpoint of the universally accepted thesis that quality education is expensive education, there is still much to be desired in the quality of primary education in the country.

Financing primary education will be problem-laden for as long as the dimensions of the educational burden increase. The report of the Presidential Commission to Survey Philippine Education corroborates this in the following statement:

> "The sheer impact of enrolment increase will, under present patterns, necessitate an average expansion in expenditures of no less than ten per cent annually, a rate higher than the projected growth in gross national product".[1]

This means that the resource requirements for universal primary education cannot be adequately met at present. As a result, efforts are unceasingly being directed towards encouraging teachers to adopt teaching strategies that are effective even with inadequate instructional resources, to exercise their innovativeness in supplementing the insufficient resources supplied by the Government, and to enlist the aid of all sectors in the community in providing educational resources required for universal primary education.

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1. *Ibid.* p. 125

The Government is constitutionally and legally committed to support primary education. It allocates 30% of the total national appropriation for education, and about 87% of this goes to the public school system.[1] In 1968/69, 96.8% of the expenditure for the public school system was for primary and special education. Of this percentage, about 95% was spent on personnel, primarily teachers.[2] This means that only about 5% of the total expenditure for the public primary schools was used for the purchase of educational materials and supplies. This accounts for the serious lack of textbooks, materials and supplies in the public primary schools.

The enactment in 1968 of Republic Act 5447, otherwise known as the Special Education Fund Law, has helped improve the financing of primary schools ; but with the high rate of school population increase, it cannot be depended upon to solve the problem of school financing.

This justifies the recommendations made by the Presidential Commission to Survey Philippine Education, namely, to adopt reforms in the direction of shifting the financial responsibility from the Government to the local authorities, to develop new revenue sources, and to improve the operational administration of financial functions.[3]

Inadequate financing explains the inadequacy of other resources, such as classrooms, teachers, facilities, instructional equipment and materials, textbooks and reference books.

The yearly enrolment growth in the public primary schools demands about 6,500 new classrooms and replacement and /or replenishment of existing facilities in an equal number of existing classrooms at the primary level, a problem which is magnified every year on account of the incapacity of the system to meet emerging needs.

The Government launched a 51 million peso school building programme in 1966. As of 30 June 1970, no less than 97,815 classrooms had been built, but the problem of classroom shortage has been far from solved. Beside the inadequacy of classrooms, the faulty design of the buildings completed and the inefficient system of allocating them add up to the problem. There are still many classes all over the country that are housed in dilapidated, sub-standard or borrowed buildings.

The Government has provided a sufficient number of teachers for the public primary schools. For an enrolment of 6 855 501 in 1969/70, there were 234 420 teachers. Since the overall teacher-pupil ratio has now been reduced to 1:29, it can be stated that the primary education system does not suffer from quantitative inadequacy of the teaching force; there are, however. indications of qualitative inadequacy.

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[1] *Ibid.* p. 127

[2] *Ibid.*

[3] *Ibid.*

To improve the quality of teachers, efforts have been directed towards upgrading their competence. In the public schools, this is done mainly through the 21 regional in-service training centres where in-service education programmes are regularly held. Teachers are encouraged to undertake research, especially of the action-research type, and to pursue advanced courses in graduate schools in the country and abroad. The more deserving teachers are awarded scholarships or granted study leave privileges as incentives for professional improvement. In both the public and private primary schools, in-service training of teachers is the responsibility of each individual school head.

To further upgrade teacher competence, the teacher education programme was revised in 1970 by the Board of National Education, the highest policy-making body in education. It now provides an education that is more relevant to the situation and problems in the community and the country at large. Emphasis is placed upon increased provision for a broader base of general education and appropriate specialization in various areas of interest. Another feature of the revised programme is the adoption of the policy of selective admission and retention in teacher training institutions.

The development, production, and distribution of textbooks, have been a major and continuing concern during the recent decades. With the textbook-pupil ratio at almost 1: 5, there is still need to step up textbook development and production.

Certain textbook adoption policies and practices slacken the process of making suitable textbooks available to the intended students. The Textbook Board reviews and approves textbooks for use in public schools. Since it is not adequately staffed, it sends books for review to teachers and supervisors in the field who have other duties to perform. Consequently, the review often takes a long time to be completed; in fact, it normally takes several years for a book to be approved and adopted. By the time it is printed, it is due for revision, and by the time it reaches the schools, it is almost obsolete.

There are unrealistic regulations that govern the authorship and publication of textbooks which affect their quality. Such regulations do not permit authorship of personnel who are in the Department of Education and Culture. Recognizing the capacity of these personnel to improve the quality of textbooks, the Presidential Commission to Survey Philippine Education recommended that they be allowed to write textbooks.

The centralization of authority for the procurement of teaching materials, equipment and supplies has become a roadblock to their efficient purchase and distribution. The system of procurement is governed by regulations prescribed centrally in Manila. The Department is in turn subject to regulations of the Bureau of Supply Co-ordination. The unhappy consequence is the procurement of resources that do not suit local conditions, in addition to the slowing down of the procurement and distribution process, which becomes disadvantageous to the schools. The Presidential Commission made a Study of the process and concluded that too much red tape has hampered the procurement and distribution of school resources. It is hoped that the reorganization of the Government, which is intended in particular to cut the red tape and accelerate organizational functioning, will improve the system.

The problems of the primary education system with regard to resources are both quantitative and qualitative. What the Government has not been able to provide, the community has provided through Parent-Teacher Associations. All over the country, there are numerous cases where school buildings, facilities, supplies, and materials serve as mute testimonies of community interest in helping provide for universal primary education.

Statistics of primary education
(public and private schools)

Table 1. Primary school enrolment, 1965-70

School year	Total primary enrolment	Annual enrolment increase (%)
1965/66	5 815 675	-
1966/67	6 193 128	6.5
1967/68	6 407 268	3.5
1968/69	6 700 367	4.6
1969/70	6 855 501	2.3

Table 2. Enrolment by grade and sex, and repeaters, school year 1968/69

Grade	Total enrolment		Of which repeaters (both sexes)
	Both sexes	Girls	
I	1 542 637	727 588	138 714
II	1 244 317	594 558	76 580
III	1 165 584	560 890	70 890
IV	1 042 891	510 416	44 849
V	921 093	456 320	49 314
VI	777 427	390 608	15 246
VII	6 268	3 460	...
Total	6 700 217	3 243 840	395 593

Table 3. Trends in the teaching staff and the number of schools

School year	Total no. of teachers	Female teachers		No. of pupils per teacher	No. of schools
		Number	Percentage		
1965/66	185 086	144 124	78	31	37 633
1966/67	208 745	163 291	78	30	37 571
1967/68	207 614	162 044	78	31	37 764
1968/69	221 856	174 672	79	30	38 776
1969/70	234 420	...	...	29	39 174

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PRIMARY EDUCATION IN SINGAPORE

by Lee Sow Ling

The re-orientation and qualitative improvement of primary education has posed problems mainly in the areas of teachers and textbooks. Government policies formulated to solve these problems involve:

1. *the expansion and upgrading of teacher education by re-structuring pre-service training as well as by providing advanced professional in-service courses;*
2. *the re-orientation and updating of the approaches and techniques of teaching in the schools through workshops and guidance to teachers provided by the Ministry of Education; and*
3. *the production of textbooks and other instructional materials necessary for the implementation of the changes in the curriculum of primary education.*

I. The system of primary education

The system of education in Singapore is highly centralized, with considerable uniformity of structure, curriculum and organization of schools. The primary course is covered in a 6-year period from Primary 1 through Primary 6 (Grades I to VI). All primary school pupils follow a common curriculum and sit for a common national primary school-leaving examination at the end of the 6-year course.

Except for a very small number, all primary schools in Singapore are complete schools. Of the incomplete schools, a number provide specifically for repeat pupils at the Primary 6 level, while others with comparatively larger enrolments provide instruction from Primary 3 through 6, and a few (which also happen to be the one- or two- teacher schools) cater for pupils at Primary 1 to 4 levels. None of the incomplete schools are Government schools. The number of schools with one or two teachers is almost negligible. These are in effect private but registered tuition classes catering for small groups of learners (from 12 to 130).

Many primary schools are co-educational, the ratio between co-educational schools and single-sex schools being almost 6:1. Generally, the older established primary schools, both of the Government and Government-aided types, are single-sex schools, while almost all the Government schools established within the last decade are co-educational. This is particularly true of the English-medium schools. The Chinese-medium schools have been co-educational for a much longer time.

Education for disabled children is provided by non-governmental agencies in a number of special schools but is assisted by the Ministry of Education which provides teachers. These schools cater for a wide age range, and where possible the normal primary school curriculum is taught to children of primary-school age. The Government recently announced the setting up of a Special Education Unit in the Ministry of Education in order to improve provision in this area of education.

A. Administration and control

All primary schools in Singapore come under the direct control of the Ministry of Education. In terms of administration, they fall into two categories namely Government schools and Government-aided schools. Government schools are established, financed and managed through the Ministry of Education. The Government-aided schools were first established by various religious missions, organizations or groups of individuals and, though controlled by the Government, are administered by school management boards responsible to the establishing mission, organization or group.

The control exercised by the Ministry of Education over the Government-aided schools extends from appointment of teachers to overall supervision of all aspects of the school's activities. The main differences between Government and Government-aided schools lie in the areas of finance, responsibility for day-to-day management and status of staff employed.

Financial assistance to Government-aided schools comes by way of payment of capital grants, staff salaries and capitation grants based on enrolment size to cover contingent expenditure. The Government subsidy meets all essential expenditure although additional facilities may be provided by occasional donations from other sources.

Principals and staff of Government-aided schools whose appointments have to be approved by the Ministry of Education, do not enjoy full Government employee status although their remuneration is based on the same rates as those applicable to Government school principals and teachers.

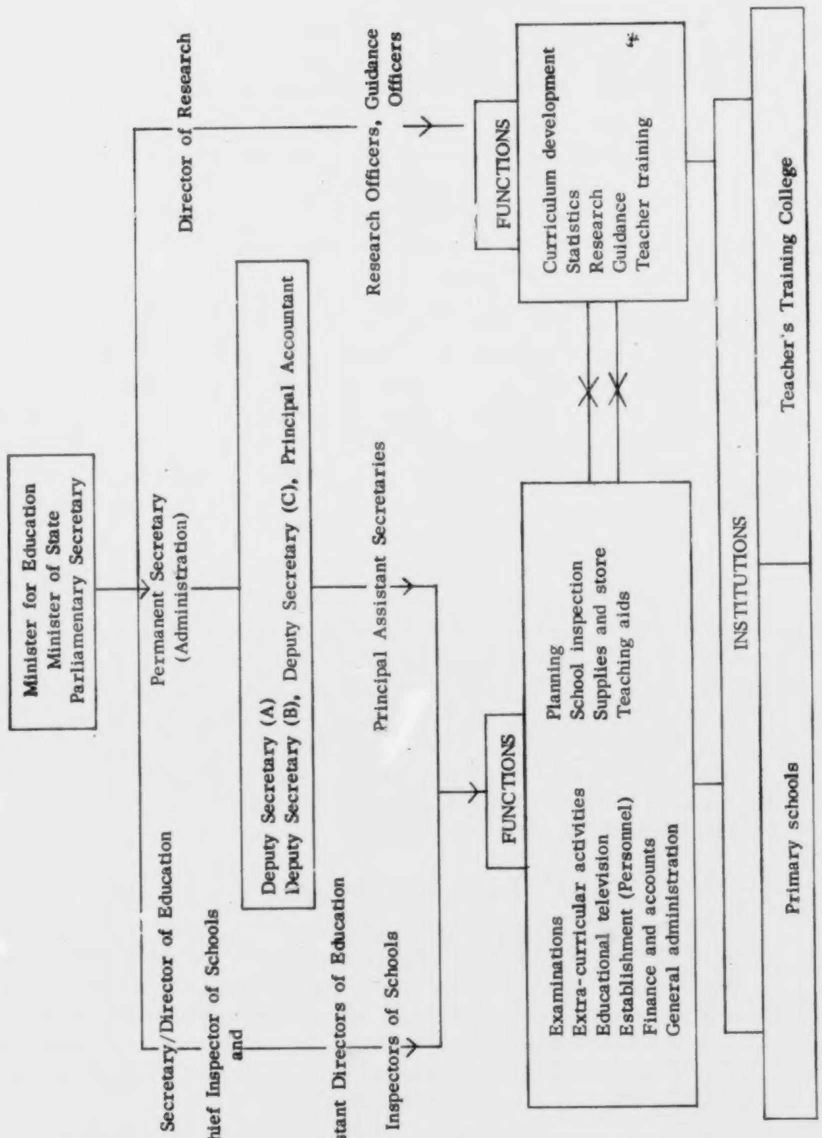
In all other respects, there is no distinction between Government and Government-aided schools. Both types of schools are attended by pupils free of charge, are similarly structured, offer the same curriculum and prepare pupils for the same national examinations at the end of the primary school course.

The continued existence of such a system is likely to facilitate the achievement of the two major goals: nation-building through education, and qualitative development of education within the context of continuing industrialization. The achievement of these goals calls for rapid and perhaps radical policy developments, and the effectiveness of policy implementation can be maximized only if the functioning of all parts of the education system is co-ordinated through direct control and close supervision.

B. Size of primary education (public and private) in 1972

Primary school-age population (Ages 6-12 inclusive, 1971 estimate)	393 400
Total enrolment in primary schools (June, 1972)	354 748
Proportion of girls in total primary enrolment	47 %
Primary enrolment ratio	90 %
Total number of teachers	11 736
Proportion of female teachers	67 %
Proportion of trained teachers	91 %
Pupil-teacher ratio	30
Total number of schools	414
Recurrent public expenditure on education, all levels. (Singapore dollar)	S $209 784 470
i) proportion spent on primary education	44 %
ii) primary per-pupil cost	S $261

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION - ADMINISTRATION OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS


Minister for Education
Minister of State
Parliamentary Secretary
Permanent Secretary
(Administration)
Director of Research
Deputy Secretary (A)
Deputy Secretary (B), Deputy Secretary (C), Principal Accountant
Permanent Secretary/Director of Education
Chief Inspector of Schools
and
Assistant Directors of Education
Inspectors of Schools
Principal Assistant Secretaries
Research Officers, Guidance Officers
FUNCTIONS
Examinations
Extra-curricular activities
Educational television
Establishment (Personnel)
Finance and accounts
General administration
Planning
School inspection
Supplies and store
Teaching aids
FUNCTIONS
Curriculum development
Statistics
Research
Guidance
Teacher training
INSTITUTIONS
Primary schools
Teacher's Training College

C. Medium of instruction

In Singapore, the four official languages are used as media of instruction and schools are classified as English-medium, Chinese-medium, Malay-medium or Tamil-medium schools.

In addition to single-medium schools there is a large number of integrated schools. In the early 1960s the Government adopted the policy of integration of schools of different linguistic media, with the result that all schools established by the Government since then are integrated. An integrated school has two streams, each using a different language as medium of instruction, but functions as one administrative unit under the management of a single principal. The two streams, though basically single-medium, share common physical facilities and participate in some common academic and most of extra curricular activities such as sports. Most of the integrated schools are recent institutions established by the Government. The majority of Government-aided schools established long before the policy of integration came into effect are non-integrated. However, a number of Government-aided schools are now converting to integrated schools, following the trend set by the Government.

Instruction in any language stream is not necessarily carried on exclusively in the chosen medium. In accordance with Singapore's policy of bilingualism in education, some schools are introducing the practice of teaching selected subjects in a second language, which can be any one of the other three official languages. The majority of primary schools are either English-medium or Chinese-medium. The number of Malay-medium schools is comparatively small, while Tamil schools are very few. English-medium schools are attended by pupils of all races while other language-medium schools tend to be more homogeneous in ethnic composition.

D. Procedures of evaluation and promotion of pupils

No formal evaluation tests are given to pupils in the first two years of the primary course. The principle of "automatic promotion" is followed so that all pupils proceed as a matter of course from the first to the second year. Internal school examinations are held in all schools from the third year onwards, and promotions and retentions are based on the yearly final examination. Generally, only very small proportions of pupils are retained in any one year.

At the end of the sixth year, all pupils sit for the Primary School Leaving Examination, a national examination administered by the Ministry of Education for selection for secondary education. This examination consists of achievement tests in the following subjects: first language (which is any one of the four official languages, depending on the medium of instruction in a particular school), second language (learnt in addition to the medium of instruction, selected from the four official languages), mathematics and science.[1] Pupils are tested in their particular medium of instruction, but test content is common to all language media.

All pupils who pass this examination are admitted to secondary schools. A number of options are open to those beyond the age of retention who fail: they can attend preparatory craft training courses or secondary classes organized by the Adult Education Board.

All enrolment for secondary schools is administered by the Ministry of Education. Pupils are allowed a choice of secondary schools and admission into popular, established schools is based on grades obtained at the Primary School Leaving Examination. However, primary pupils in full schools[2] are given priority if they choose to enrol in the secondary section of their school.

II. Policies, problems and experiments

The educational policy of the Singapore Government is to provide at least 6 years of universal free primary education. The age limits for primary education are 6 and 14 years, 14 years being the maximum age for retention. Primary education is provided free to all children of Singapore citizens. Admission to Primary 1 is in January each year, except for Chinese-medium schools which admit pupils twice a year, in January and June.

In Singapore, the provision of universal primary education has been achieved since the mid-1960s. The Government policy with regard to primary education in the present decade aims at consolidating the many socio-cultural developments in nation-building through education and effecting the qualitative improvement of education.

The goal of nation-building is to be achieved by the further development of bilingual education. In the recent policy, the importance of second language learning is highlighted by a number of curricular and examination changes at the primary level. Two strategies, those of increasing the proportion of instruction time for the second language and of requiring the use of the second language as medium of instruction for selected subjects in the curriculum, aim at increasing exposure to the second language. A third requirement, that of increasing the weighting of second language attainment in the Primary School Leaving Examination, is aimed at enhancing the status of the second language in the school curriculum.

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[1] Up to 1971, achievement in history and geography was also tested.

[2] A full school is one which has both primary and secondary sections.

The qualitative development of primary education is also a top-priority objective. The primary course must aim at developing basic skills such as literacy and numeracy, imparting certain minimal knowledge and effecting the socialization of the child. Moreover, to serve the manpower needs of industrialization, secondary education has had to be re-orientated to achieve a technical bias in what was formerly a purely academic course. Such re-orientation necessarily enhances the importance of primary education in its function of overall intellectual development of the child.

A. Re-orientation of primary education

1. Goals

The goal of primary education is the total development of the individual child. Instruction in the primary course aims specifically at:

(a) teaching the basic skills of literacy and numeracy and knowledge which will enable the child to proceed to secondary academic or technical education;

(b) achieving the all-round development of personality and character, with an understanding of the value of work and discipline;

(c) inculcating loyalty to Singapore and fostering the attitudes and competencies conducive to harmonious integration within a multicultural society, such as racial and cultural tolerance and bilingual skills;

(d) promoting the physical development of the child;

(e) nurturing the aesthetic growth of the child;

(f) instilling a love of basic values, a respect for fundamental human rights and the spirit of internationalism.

2. The organization of curriculum reforms

Since 1969, curriculum development at all levels of the school course and for all subject areas has been co-ordinated under the Advisory Committee on Curriculum Development which was established under the chairmanship of the Director of Research of the Ministry of Education. Prior to this, a number of separate committees were responsible for the syllabi of the various subjects of the curriculum. The Advisory Committee is composed of educators drawn from all sectors and levels of the education system.

The Advisory Committee on Curriculum Development is charged with the main responsibility of revising the secondary and primary curricula to ensure that they are directed towards the attainment of the national goals of school education. The Advisory Committee has succeeded in revising the primary curriculum and will continue the work of revision through the secondary level.

3. Major problems

An important problem and first task for the Advisory Committee was the clarification and articulation of the national goals and specific objectives of the primary curriculum, which were generally understood and accepted but hitherto implicit rather than explicit.

The original syllabi had been graded from the first through the sixth year with the different subjects of the curriculum conceived as separate areas. The first phase of the Committee's work or reorientation involved a new view of the curriculum as a course that progresses through three stages, (i.e. first and second years, third and fourth years, and fifth and sixth years) to accommodate the variation in abilities resulting from differences in maturation rates and intelligence. The concept of integration of subjects was also introduced so that areas of overlap between subjects could be used to reinforce learning in the overlapping subjects and to relate school instruction more closely to real life experiences and situations.

Instruction in each subject was subjected to a rigorous restructuring according to identification of objectives, selection of learning activities and evaluation of achievement of objectives. Syllabi were developed by teachers who, though experienced in teaching, often encountered difficulties in the actual writing of syllabi since they were not specialists in curriculum development. The revised syllabi together with guidelines were disseminated by the Ministry of Education. Introductory briefings and workshops were held for principals and teachers to direct the implementation of the revised syllabi. The responsibility for providing such guidance in the implementation rested with the inspectors who were subject specialists. The main difficulty in the promotion of the syllabi in the earlier stages was the shortage of inspectorate staff, which did not allow for ready and regular consultations between inspectors and teachers. The process of consolidation of the revised curriculum and syllabi may also have been hampered by the initial resistance to change, lack of understanding of the nature of the changes in concept and teaching approaches and techniques, and diffidence and reluctance on the part of many teachers. To solve such problems, the Committee also undertook the writing of extensive lesson guidelines which demonstrated the new teaching approaches and techniques. The real solution, however, lies in the massive re-training of teachers, which is not practicable due to constraints of time and finance.

4. Experimental operations

A strategy adopted as a partial solution to the problem of promotion of the revised curriculum was the selection of certain schools as model schools. Model schools have enthusiastic and knowledgeable principals and teachers who succeed in implementing the new curriculum, and so facilitate the promotion of new patterns of activities. They are constantly supervised by the Inspectorate and visited by members of the Advisory Committee on Curriculum Development.

A pilot project involving a number of other schools is experimenting with the planned integration of mathematics, science and language. Experimental materials are produced by inspectors and teachers associated with the project. Guidance and training through workshops and regular briefing are also provided by the inspectors for teachers working in schools under the project.

As a major step towards overcoming the problem of teachers' re-training, a workshop was organized for interested teachers at the Teachers' Training College by the Research Unit of the Ministry of Education. Members of the Advisory Committee on Curriculum Development as well as inspectors and principals of model schools demonstrated the organization of learning activities, the use of new techniques and the production of materials appropriate for implementing the revised curriculum. The workshop also resulted in the establishment of a resource centre at the Teachers' Training College which caters for the production and dissemination of teaching aids and materials specially designed for the revised curriculum.

Evaluation of the revised curriculum is planned and tests in all subject areas are being constructed by the Research Unit.

B. Resources

The highly centralized system with its concentration of responsibility at the Ministry of Education is a direct consequence of this earlier trend of educational development. Under this system, the Government is responsible for much of the resources for primary education, mainly teachers, curriculum and syllabi, textbooks and other books in the languages of instruction and infrastructural services such as effective supervision, school health services and special assistance for needy pupils. Other resources, mainly finances, physical facilities such as classrooms, libraries, workshops and outdoor space and general instructional equipment are provided by the Government and supplemented by voluntary community contributions.

The generation, distribution and effective utilization of resources for primary education pose problems which require solution if the effectiveness of the primary school course is to be maximized. The resources which present the most problems are teachers and textbooks, both of which are particularly important for the implementation of the policy of bilingualism, and finances.

1. Teachers

The Teachers' Training College, which is a Government-administered institution, is responsible for producing the total force of qualified teachers in Government and Government-aided primary schools. The supply of primary teachers has been adequate in quantity in more recent years but still falls short in quality. The problem of quality has resulted mainly from the fact that recruits to teacher training are generally not school leavers with top academic qualifications but rather tend to be those who cannot compete successfully for university or polytechnical training or for employment in commerce and industry. This is perhaps inevitable in a situation where the teaching profession does not enjoy equal status with some other professions and where the financial incentives of the job are not such as to attract top quality recruits.[1] Opportunities for career development were insufficient, particularly for the mass of primary school teachers, whose training has been at the non-graduate level. In these circumstances, interest in teaching is difficult to sustain and the development of professionalism seriously hampered; hence the need for regular re-training of teachers through in-service courses which will upgrade their academic level and professional skills. The Government's recent re-structuring of the Education Service and revision of salaries are aimed at improving career opportunities and enhancing the status of teachers.

More specifically, the production of bilingual teachers to effect the full implementation of Singapore's policy of bilingual education is a major problem requiring urgent solution. There are two main aspects to this problem. Firstly, there is the need to produce a new breed of teachers who are able to teach the second language as well as the particular subject areas of the curriculum for which the second language is to be the medium of instruction. Secondly this means that the training given has to be well-grounded and yet sufficiently wide-ranging in content to produce teachers versatile enough to teach a number of the subjects of the primary curriculum in the second language.

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[1] This problem is not unique to Singapore. The teaching profession in many countries encounter similar problems of status and remuneration.

Problems also arise in the distribution and utilization of teachers because of new trends in enrolment and changes of policy. Enrolment trends may give rise to an over-supply of teachers in schools of certain linguistic media and to a corresponding demand for more teachers in schools of other linguistic media. The implementation of the new policy will require teachers different in training and expertise from those already employed in the system. There is a constant need for re-training to update teaching skills and for judicious deployment of personnel.

In view of these problems, an Institute of Education, which will replace the present Teachers' Training College, will be established in 1973 as an autonomous institution to consolidate and expand the work of re-orientation and re-organization of teacher training which began in 1971.

2. Textbooks

The re-orientation of primary education has also created problems in the area of textbooks. The lack of textbooks for the teaching of the second language is a major problem. Briefly, three main kinds of books and other instructional materials are needed to attain the objective of bilingualism: firstly, basic course-books in each of the second languages, designed specifically for the Singapore learner at the primary level; secondly, readers and other supplementary and enrichment materials; thirdly, subject textbooks produced in the second language for the teaching of these subjects in the new medium. Such textbooks are often extremely difficult to produce, as their usability often depends on the skillful balance of right content and language level appropriate to the second-language competence of the learner.

In the teaching of the first languages (i.e. the languages which are the sole or main medium of instruction such as English in an English-medium school) the textbook problem is less acute. In the teaching of English and Malay as first languages, most of the textbooks used are produced in Singapore. In the case of Chinese, there is a need for textbooks which are modern in approach and locally oriented in content.

Schemes have been implemented by the Ministry of Education whereby experienced language teachers and subject specialists undertake to write series of textbooks required for the teaching of the official syllabus especially in subjects such as history, and English as a second language.

3. Finances

Public education at primary, secondary and tertiary levels is financed almost entirely by the Government which meets all recurrent as well as much of the development expenditure. No education tax is levied and primary education is free while fees charged for secondary education are nominal. As is usual with young nations, over 25% of the population is of school age. Primary education has to compete with the other sectors of the education system for finance, particularly the technical and vocational sector with its rather heavy demands.

In order to ease this problem, the Government is now encouraging Government schools to raise part of the finances required for development through projects such as fun-fairs, sales of pupils' art and craft work, school concerts, and from public donations. [1]

4. Facilities

In terms of physical facilities such as classrooms and furniture, the primary schools are adequately equipped for formal classroom-oriented activities. However, problems will arise if schools are to undertake learning programmes which are not conventionally organized and which require more flexibly structured facilities such as larger work spaces which can be readily converted into learning spaces. The lack of flexibly structured multi-purpose rooms in addition to the regular classrooms, assembly hall and library may create problems should the schools adopt learning programmes which are less conventionally organized than the present activities.

5. Other resources

Schools are encouraged to establish central libraries as well as small class libraries or reading corners. Schools are allocated sums of money for the purchase of books. Problems often arise as some principals and teachers do not have the expertise to develop their libraries or to make full use of them. This is being dealt with by a Ministry of Education School Library Committee comprising teachers and principals and librarians from the National Library, which has recently circulated a list of requirements and guidelines for the fuller development and utilization of library resources in schools.

Most schools are equipped to receive radio and television programmes. Each school also possesses at least one tape-recorder for use in language, music and dance activities; other audio-visual aids such as overhead projectors are common. In terms of hardware, an average Singapore school is thus very well equipped. Much of the software used is locally produced either by the Educational Television Service or by the Ministry of Education Audio-visual Aids Unit. Teachers undergoing workshop training in connexion with the revised curricula for primary schools are also co-operating to produce instructional and supportive materials for their own use.

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[1] This practice has always been resorted to by Government-aided schools.

Outdoor space is usually adequate for physical activities including games, sports and physical exercises as well as extra-curricular activities. Much emphasis is being placed on the all-round development of the primary child. The problem of expertise is being solved by training specialist teachers in physical education, music, dance, and art and craft.

The Government does not provide transport facilities for primary school children, but has encouraged the provision of such a service at special rates by the private sector.[1]

Statistics of primary education
(public and private schools)

Table 1. Trends in primary school-age population and primary enrolment

School year	Population of primary school-age[1]	Total primary enrolment[2]	Enrolment ratio (%)[3]	Annual enrolment increase (%)
1965	383 300	357 075	93.15	
1966	394 100	364 846	92.57	2.17
1967	399 400	368 654	92.30	1.04
1968	403 100	371 970	92.27	0.89
1969	403 000	366 881	91.03	1.36
1970	402 400	363 518	90.33	0.91
1971	398 700	357 936	89.78	1.54
1972	393 400	354 748	90.17	0.89

1. Age-group: 6-12 years (inclusive). The estimates are based on 1971 population statistics.
2. The number of under-aged children is negligible. Over-aged children, i.e. 13 years and over, in 1972, made up about 2.7% of total primary enrolment.
3. The variation in ratios for the years 1965 to 1972 is partly due to the differences in the proportion of over-aged children in the primary enrolment. In the later years of this period there has been an increase in the number of 12 year-olds in the secondary enrolment. For example, in 1972, the ratio will be 95.31% when the number of 12-year-olds in the secondary enrolment is added to primary enrolment 6-12 years.

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[1] For example, the Government charges road tax for school buses at concession rates.

Table 2. Enrolment by grade and sex, and repeaters, school year 1972

Grade	Total enrolment Both sexes	Total enrolment Girls	Repeaters (included in total) Both sexes	Repeaters (included in total) Girls
I	52 161	25 385	22	16
II	55 499	26 867	64	26
III	57 657	27 497	2 104	712
IV	56 344	26 768	2 352	837
V	56 195	26 532	2 259	794
VI	53 987	25 582	22 905	8 130
Total primary	354 748	166 761	29 706	10 515

Table 3. Trends in the teaching staff and number of primary schools

School year	Total number of teachers	Number of female teachers	Percentage female teachers	Pupil-teacher ratio	Total number of schools
1965	12 112	6 945	57.3	29	465
1966	12 353	7 303	59.1	30	465
1967	12 430	7 543	60.7	30	460
1968	12 435	7 680	61.8	30	450
1969	12 156	7 670	63.1	30	437
1970	12 448	8 083	64.9	29	427
1971	11 949	7 894	66.1	30	419
1972	11 736	7 908	67.4	30	414

Table 4. Distribution of schools by type and size, school year 1972

	Number of schools	Enrolment involved
A. By type of schools:		
1. Urban	274	271 254
Rural [1]	142	83 851
2. Public [2]	410	354 766
Private	6	339
3. Single-sex	63	61 045
Co-educational	353	294 060
4. One-teacher schools	3	63
Two-teacher schools	3	109
B. By size (number of pupils):		
50 or less	9	287
51 - 100	14	1 053
101 - 150	12	1 507
151 - 200	17	3 011
201 - 300	46	11 264
301 - 500	52	21 073
501 - 1000	98	73 125
1001 - 2000	147	197 237
2001 and over	21	46 548

1. The term "rural" refers to areas of low population density, with relatively few urban features and used primarily for agriculture. However, owing to Singapore's limited land area, such areas although designated rural may be situated close to urban centres.
2. The term "public" refers to Government and Government-aided schools.

Bulletin of the Unesco Regional Office
for Education in Asia
Number 14, June 1973

PRIMARY EDUCATION IN SRI LANKA

by Kamala Peiris

Education in Sri Lanka is free and compulsory for children from 6-14 years of age. Primary education at present comprises the first five years of schooling corresponding to 6-9 years of age inclusive. The size of the school system is large, but the fact that all children do not complete the first five years of schooling highlights the need for further expansion.

The high drop-out and repeater rates now prevailing need to be reduced by intensifying the resources already allocated to primary education. An attempt to do this is being made through providing more and better teachers, plant and equipment, student welfare resources, scholarships and bursaries, and maximal use of aid received from foreign and international agencies. Distribution and promotion of resources are done more equitably through decentralization of administration, better spread of teacher provision, area selection, more active parent-teacher involvement and greater consultation with elected representatives of the people.

Environmental changes and insights into child development have necessitated changes in content and methods of education. It is hoped that through continuous assessment and revision of the programme, teacher capacity may be developed for self-sustaining voluntary professional growth, and the use of the "curriculum of the environment" as a means of achieving broader educational objectives.

I. The system of primary education

By legal provision education in Sri Lanka is free from the primary up to the university levels. The duration of compulsory education was from 5 to 14 years of age until the end of 1971, but from the beginning of 1972, the age of admission to schools was raised to 6 years. Children who complete 6 years of age by 31 January are admitted to schools at the beginning of the year. This practice is followed generally all over the country since no compulsion is needed to persuade people to send their children for the first time to school. If however, a parent has been unable to send his child to school at the beginning of the year, this child is not refused admission later in the year merely on this score.

The school year begins in January and comprises three terms of a little over three months each, with a vacation of about three weeks from one term to the next. The schools are in session five days per week, from Monday to Friday, making up a total of around 200 working days for the year. The duration of the school day is four hours in the first grade and about 5½ hours in the other grades.

Up to the end of 1965, primary education comprised 6 grades i.e. Grades IA, IB and II to V. From 1966, the first 7 years were termed elementary education (Level 1) of which the primary level included the first five years, Grades I-V. In 1970, the elementary education level was extended to include Grade VIII too, but the duration of primary education, i.e. five years, remained as before. From 1972, with the new reforms in education, there are now three stages of general education, Primary (five years: Grades I-V), Junior Secondary, (four years: Grades VI-IX) and Senior Secondary (two years: Grades X-XI).

Not all schools in Sri Lanka are organized to offer instruction at the three stages: the 1971 school census returns showed that there were 21 schools which provided only the first two years of schooling, 3,029 which provided the first five years of the primary level and 6,000 which provided 7, 8, 10 or 12 years of schooling including the primary stage.

During the academic year 1971, there were 8,585 schools directly administered by the State. These schools comprised 66 central schools or Madhya Maha Vidyalayas located in rural areas, 1,471 Maha Vidyalayas of a similar type but with limited facilities and 7,048 Vidyalayas, a considerable proportion of which provided education up to end of Grade X. Except for about 450 schools that provided only Grades VIII and above, all the rest included the primary level of education. In addition to the government schools,there were 85 private schools which had remained privately owned when the State took responsibility in 1951 for providing general education, and 824 estate schools run by the proprietors of large estates on government grant and under State supervision. Of these two categories, the former provided education generally up to 10 or even 12 years of schooling while the latter mainly provided only five years of primary education. There were also 8 night schools providing general education to adults in employment, and many special schools run by voluntary organizations for providing pre-school education and education to physically and mentally handicapped children.

Statistics regarding schools that may be categorized as urban and rural are not available, but since around 80% of the population living outside municipal and urban council areas may be termed rural, the school population would also roughly coincide with this division. For comparable school population, the number of schools in the rural areas is greater than in urban areas on account of difficulty of transport and accessibility. Of the rural schools, those in very remote areas are manned only by one or two teachers, but the range of schooling provided may cover the whole of the primary stage, although only a small proportion of pupils remain in Grades IV and V in these schools.

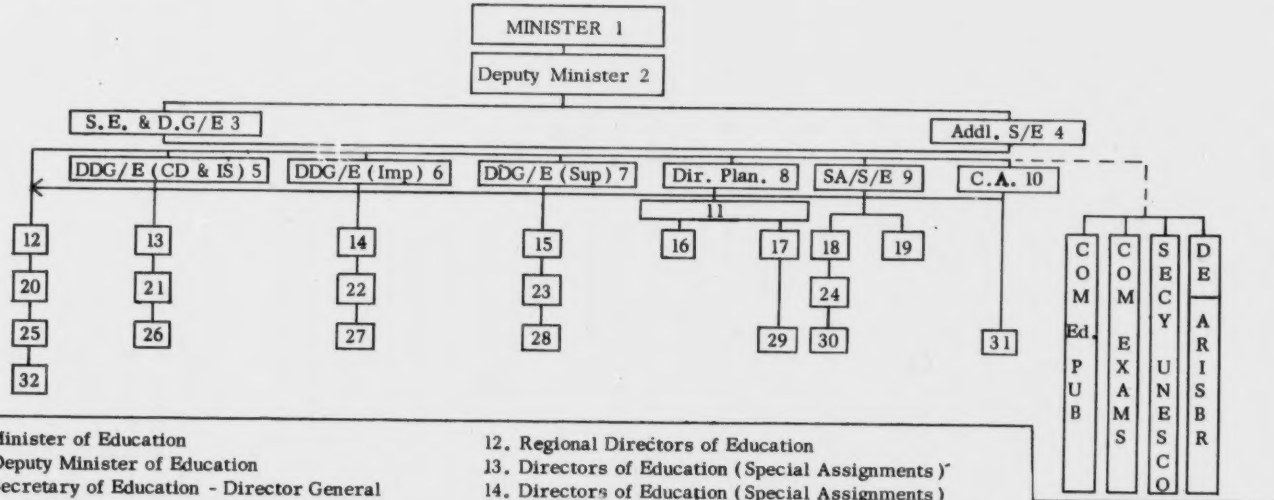
In 1971, the total number of schools, including those providing all stages of general education, was made up of 556 single-sex schools and 8,946 co-educational schools. Thus, some of them are single-sex schools throughout the various stages of education. However, the primary level of schooling is generally co-educational, and this applies to almost all the 3,029 schools that provided only the primary level of education in 1971.

A. Administration and control

The diagram below illustrates the machinery for the administration and control of schools. Up to 1966 there was one Department of Education with a Director assisted by a small number of Assistant Directors in some of the districts. In 1966 administrative control was decentralized by establishing Regional Offices under the control of Regional Directors. Each of these regions (15 in number) is now administered as a separate Department of Education under the guidance of the Ministry. In addition to these Regional Directors, there are a number of Directors attached to the Ministry for purposes of policy formulation, design and co-ordination. They work under three Deputy Directors General of Education who are directly responsible to the Secretary who also holds simultaneously the post of Director General of Education and Additional Secretary of Education. Until 1971, the three Deputy Directors General had responsibility for administration and control of secondary education, elementary education and technical education respectively. From the end of 1971, the horizontal demarcation of secondary and elementary education has been abolished, and the Deputy Directors General have been allotted responsibility across all stages of education, one for curriculum development including in-service education, another for implementation, and the third for supervision.

Supervision of the primary level of education is exercised through two grades of head teachers (about 9,462) in charge of Vidyalayas (junior schools), and three grades of special post holders and principals in cases where the Maha Vidhalayas (senior schools) include primary sections. At the next level there are 219 Circuit Education Officers each of whom is responsible for supervision of about 40 schools in his educational circuit. The supervisor / teacher ratio in general education (primary and secondary levels together) is approximately 1: 300.

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION
Organization chart, in relation to school administration
1972


MINISTER 1
Deputy Minister 2
S.E. & D.G/E 3
Addl. S/E 4
DDG/E (CD & IS) 5
DDG/E (Imp) 6
DDG/E (Sup) 7
Dir. Plan. 8
SA/S/E 9
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SECY UNESCO
DE ARISBR

1. Minister of Education
2. Deputy Minister of Education
3. Secretary of Education - Director General of Education
4. Additional Secretary of Education
5. Deputy Director General of Education (Curriculum and In-service)
6. Deputy Director General of Education (Implementation)
7. Deputy Director General of Education (Supervision)
8. Director of Planning
9. Senior Assistant Secretary
10. Chief Accountant
11. Deputy Director of Planning
12. Regional Directors of Education
13. Directors of Education (Special Assignments)
14. Directors of Education (Special Assignments)
15. Directors of Education (Special Assignments)
16. Legal Adviser
17. Assistant Director of Planning
18. Director of School Works
19. Assistant Secretaries
20. Chief Education Officers (Regional)
21. Chief Education Officers (Special Assignments)
22. Chief Education Officers (Special Assignments)
23. Chief Education Officers (Special Assignments)
24. Superintending Engineer - School Works
25. Education Officers (Regional)
26. Education Officers (Special Assignments)
27. Education Officers (Special Assignments)
28. Education Officers (Special Assignments)
29. Statistical Officer
30. School Works Engineers
31. Accounts
32. Circuit Education Officers

B. Size of primary education

Population projections made in 1970 in terms of five-year age-groups on the basis of the 1963 census data have been resolved graphically into single year of age in order to make enrolment projections.[1] According to these data, the primary school age population (ages 5-9 inclusive) was about 1,671,500. The enrolment projection for the primary level based on these data was 1,692,500, taking into consideration proportions of pupils in each grade aged one or two years above the relevant single-year age-group for the grade. But the 1971 school census revealed that the actual enrolment in September 1971 was 1,801,685. This large increase over the estimate may be explained in two ways. Firstly, estimates are based on age at the beginning of the year while enrolment data are collected on 30 September. Secondly, it was found that in every grade there were mainly three age-groups: for example Grade I comprised one-third of the five-year age-group, two-thirds of the six-year age-group, and one-fourth of the 7-year age-group. The proportion of girls in the actual total primary enrolment was 47%. The present adult literacy rate of 82% may be an indication of the enlightened attitude of the rural masses, who recognize the need for education at least at the primary level for girls as well as for boys.

Although hypothetically the primary enrolment should comprise children 5 to 9 years of age, in actual fact it extends up to 11 years, raising the primary enrolment ratio to 108%.

The teachers generally expected to man the primary level hold either the general teachers' certificate or academic certificates on the results of a public examination conducted after 10 years of schooling. There were 73,300 teachers in 1971, 59% of whom were women. Due to the lack of graduates and specially trained teachers, some of the generally trained teachers are employed to teach grades beyond Grade V and therefore the estimated number of teachers teaching primary grades would be in the region of 60,000. The proportion of trained teachers in the total force of among 73,300 was 57%, but the majority of those teaching higher grades would be trained, so that a proportion of 50% trained teachers in the primary level would be a closer estimate. The pupil-teacher ratio is 30:1 at the primary level, and 20:1 at the secondary level.

In 1970-71, of the recurrent expenditure authorized for education (468.5 million Ceylon rupees) about 70% was set aside for elementary level. At that time this level included Grades I-VII. Considering that teachers' salaries constitute the largest component of this expenditure, and that more teachers are needed for each of the Grades I-V than for Grades VI or VII, the proportion of recurrent expenditure for primary level (Grades I-V) would be of the order of 60% of the total educational expenditure from public revenues. The per pupil cost at the primary level in 1969-1970 was Rs. 112.3, while that of secondary level was Rs. 377.6.

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[1] Ceylon. Ministry of Education. Division of Secondary Education. *Perspectives for development of second level general education (1970-1980): Part II. Data statistics, projections.* /Colombo/ February 1970. p. 49.

C. Medium of instruction

The mother tongue of the pupil is the medium of instruction at the primary level. Since the population comprises two major linguistic groups, primary education is given in one or the other of the two languages, Sinhala and Tamil. The importance of English as a world language is recognized and it is taught as a compulsory subject from Grade VI, or as an optional from Grade III where facilities are available.

D. Procedures for evaluation and promotion of pupils

Up to the present time, the general procedure has been to hold monthly and end-of-term tests both for periodic assessment as a basis for timely remedial action, and for promotion to higher grades. It is recognized, however, that formal testing procedures specially at primary level are not appropriate and alternative means of continuous assessment are being tried out as a necessary component of curriculum reforms. There is no curricular differentiation at the primary level or at the junior secondary level. The curriculum at the primary level includes the following subjects: first language, numbers (which will be replaced by mathematics on a phased programme from 1973), second language (where applicable), religion, environmental activities, constructional activities and aesthetic activities. Except in the first three areas where basic skills on a hierarchical basis are involved, it is realized that formal testing at a cognitive level mainly encourages rote memorization and is detrimental to attitude and skill development, and therefore should give place to continuous assessment.

The procedure for promotion to post-primary, i.e. junior secondary level of education, is flexible, and since each individual school has full freedom to promote pupils who appear to be able to profit by secondary education, competition for a restricted number of places at the junior secondary level does not exist in Sri Lanka. Further, with the new reforms of education introduced in 1972, there will be "automatic" or "natural" progression and consequently no failures in Grades I to IV, with provision for repeating Grade V once if necessary. This type of automatic promotion will be coupled with intermediate remedial measures taken for maintaining standards of education throughout the primary level.

II. Policies, problems and experiments

A. Re-orientation of primary education

It is recognized that in order to bring all children of the relevant age-groups into the primary schools of the country and to retain them, attempts need to be made not only directly on the quantitative front but also indirectly on the qualitative front. While it is accepted that at no cost should a lowering of standards be allowed, an equally challenging concern should be whether the present type of education, and the schools imparting it, as are found at present,do equip today's children for the tasks that await them as citizens of the world of tomorrow.

There will be many environmental changes which will make tomorrow's world very different from what it is today. Some of them are: the currently much talked-of "knowledge explosion" which necessitates 'learning to learn' in place of'learning facts'; the increasing complexity of the world which demands of its citizens high levels of analytical and rational thought; the rapid rate of change in all aspects of living which calls for adaptability and flexibility; dependence of man on automation and its monotonous consequences which have to be counteracted by the development of human powers of creativity; and the growing unwholesome and highly competitive spirit which must be checked by fostering of attitudes promoting co-existence and co-operation. In addition to these and other environmental changes, current investigations into the developmental stages of children have given us new insights into the basis for children's manifest behaviour. A knowledge of the rationale of different behaviour patterns in children at various stages of growth may be used for devising appropriate and meaningful experiences (curricula) with a view to gaining educational objectives which would have to comprise the essentially valid components of present-day objectives as well as new objectives consistent with the environmental demands of the future world.

With these factors in mind, the following guidelines have been formulated for action programmes in quality improvement at the primary level in Sri Lanka.

(a) Children learn willingly and responsively when they are offered meaningful experiences in a natural setting, making abundant use of the environment familiar to them. Consequently the compartmentalized subject curriculum at the primary level should give way to a set of integrated activities which children may pursue freely according to their interests and inclinations.

(b) Children pass through pre-operational and concrete operational stages during the period when they are in the primary school. They will therefore learn actively through all their senses. This implies that the present roles of teachers as 'doers' and of children as 'receivers' should change. Challenging activity-based tasks promoting guided discovery learning to catch the imagination and attention of young children are necessary.

(c) Children should be given opportunities for group work, so that they may learn through practical experience to gradually change their naturally egocentric and competitive behaviour patterns to those of tolerance and co-operation.

(d) The moral development of children should aim through practical situations to foster in them an attitudes and values system which will help them to be impartial and considerate of others.

(e) In addition to planned physical exercises geared to healthy physical growth, free movement, role playing, improvised music and drama and devices for thought stimulation should be used for nurturing and developing creativity in children.

(f) Development of mathematical concepts in early years should be realized through activities related to the stages of development through which children pass in temporal sequential order.

(g) Subjecting children to periodic onslaughts of formal testing should be replaced by a process of continuous assessment of their work by teachers for purposes of planning future experiences for them. Each child should be encouraged not to outdo others but to better his own previous record.

(h) In planning a programme of work for qualitative development of primary education on the basis of the guidelines set out above, the elegance of the planned organizational design should be sacrificed if necessary to its implementation feasibility. It should be remembered that an ideally efficient but highly accident-prone programme may not survive as well as a programme which is less perfect but more practicable in view of the available personnel and prevailing conditions of work.

The programme of work is outlined in terms of broad areas of activity: curriculum development, related action research, in-service education and necessary information flow.

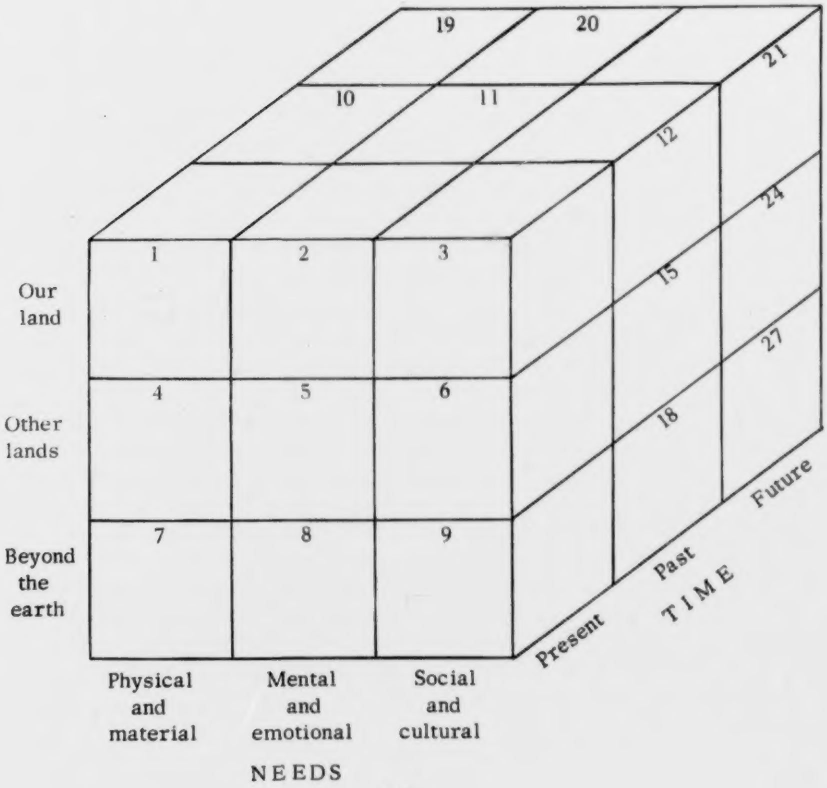
1. Curriculum development

(i) Syllabus revision (content specifications). Active child participation in a teaching-learning situation through integrated units of work is only possible if the content specifications in terms of specified syllabuses lend themselves to this form of treatment. The curriculum at the primary education level has therefore been envisaged as a three-dimensional model, the dimensions being those of space, time and human needs (see diagram). Through a consideration of various intersections of sub-components of these dimensions relevant to the interests of children at this level, eleven main themes have been identified as appropriate centres of interest which hold together the diverse treatments and emphasis that go into various subject disciplines. The final objective of such a thematic approach is that the class teacher may use a single project for providing experiences in a number of curricular areas simultaneously to groups of children. The same themes are designed to be dealt with at a greater depth and complexity from year to year during the first five years at school.

Curriculum Development Model

Level 1 (Grades I to V)

PRIMARY LEVEL


19
20
21
10
11
12
1
2
3
24
15
27
4
5
6
18
7
8
9
Our land
Other lands
Beyond the earth
Physical and material
Mental and emotional
Social and cultural
NEEDS
Present
Past
Future
TIME

(ii) Teachers' handbooks (teaching specifications). The syllabuses, though designed as separate units, may be used in an integrated and active manner, making provision for discovery learning by children, so that it becomes necessary that detailed suggestions for such uses of the material be available to the teacher. After the syllabuses have been made available to the schools, it is planned to provide detailed teaching specifications in the form of teachers' handbooks with suggestions for individual work by pupils.

(iii) Pupils' texts. The reader in the first language may be the only book available to rural children in Grade I, and even in other grades of the primary level the maximum number of textbooks is four. In order to make the reader as attractive to the child as possible both in terms of content and presentation, a sub-project has been started by the Educational Publications Department to produce readers in the first language annually for consecutive grades, starting with the book for Grade I in 1973. This sub-project is mentioned here as it is of relevance for the total curriculum development programme.

(iv) Exploratory work for integrated teaching. Another sub-project has been planned for 1973 with a view to continuous assessment in adopting the material designed for integrated work in classrooms. An attempt will be made to get feedback from trained pilot teachers in the form of suggested amendments and additions to the material provided to them. In addition, they will be expected to use the material imaginatively to provide challenging integrated experiences to the children and to keep detailed records of the same.

(v) Supportive documents. Try-out of integrated curricular projects through activity-based group-work in which children engage necessitates a programme of continuous assessment of children's performance. Such an interrelated curricular programme with its unconventional assessment procedures involves production and use of a whole set of supportive documents for reporting and recording the practicability of the programme. A sub-project will thus be initiated in order to design several alternative daily time schedules of work, teachers' aids in the form of broad schemes of work and two-week plans of work, means of recording pupils' progress and reporting to parents, as well as guidelines for supervision and guidance of pilot teachers by administrative personnel such as Circuit Education Officers and heads of schools.

2. Action-research programmes

(i) Curriculum design based on child development. The final goal in determining what should go into a syllabus should be the delimitation of a hierarchy of concepts, attitudes and skills in the particular discipline concerned. Two approaches are possible in any attempt to achieve this objective. On the one hand, a preconceived hierarchy of objectives may be decided upon by adults in terms of societal needs as well as those of the discipline concerned. On the other hand, these objectives may further be experimentally tried out with children of the level for which they are intended, so that the hierarchy and content be determined only as a result of such a try-out. The second approach is undisputably superior to the first but has the disadvantage of being inevitably time consuming and therefore necessitating planning on a long-term basis.

The thematic approach enunciated earlier is of the first type and is recognized as an intermediate course of action demanded by the need for urgent revision of the huge mass of inert and unnecessary detail that is evident in the primary school syllabuses of today.

A considerable amount of effort in the form of organized experimental work with children has already been done in the area of primary mathematics. As a basis for this project, a fundamental study of conceptual development in children has also been undertaken, and it is hoped that the experience thus gained may also be used in other curricular areas, (such as first language and science in the first instance) for developing a hierarchy of objectives relating to pupil behaviours. Such an investigation may later still be expanded to develop similar material for other areas.

(ii) Feasibility study for non-graded vertical grouping. It is surmised that the number of dropouts and first repeaters at the end of Grade I may partially be due to the fact that children spend a considerable part of the first year in being oriented to work with a group of peers in the special social situation of the school. This may reduce the time available for actual work specially in basic skill areas such as first language and mathematics, and the children who are below average may thus be retained in Grade I for a second year. In order to see whether this situation can be somewhat relieved by grouping the first two grades together, a feasibility study is being carried out in a few schools with a non-graded programme for the first two years, handled by a team of teachers.

(iii) Remedial teaching (short-term and long-term). Another means of achieving this same end is being explored by two projects (undertaken on a short-term and a long-term basis) for providing teachers with remedial techniques to be used in classroom situations. Methods already tried out by practising teachers in remedial work in language and mathematics are about to be published in the form of two pamphlets, while a long-term project for identification of specific problem areas and for design of remedial work is in progress.

(iv) Programmed learning material and diagnostic tests. In the area of first language, a project has been initiated for analysing the Grade I reader, in Sinhala and Tamil, and for producing graded supplementary material for use by poor readers as an essential remedial measure. It is envisaged that a similar project will be initiated for use with material supplied in the elementary mathematics project. Such material will possibly also be used for the development of diagnostic test materials so that specific difficulties in these areas may be identified with ease.

(v) Plant and equipment design. Investigations and studies are being undertaken to design school plants and equipment that would best support the above programmes at the most economical cost.

3. In-service education

Curriculum development, especially at the primary level, is less than half done if only the design of the material is completed. The know-how for intelligent handling of the latter by the teachers is an essential pre-requisite for effective provision of learning experiences particularly at this level. A concerted attempt to bring about involvement and resourceful planning by teachers at the primary level is thus essential. The following activities have been planned with a view to achieving this end.

(i) Phase I (Grades I and II). This project involved a five-day training programme organized by the Curriculum Development Centre for two selected pilot teachers in Grades I and II from each educational circuit, there being around 200 such circuits in the country. This training course aimed at making a break-through in teaching procedures. It highlighted the need for the teacher's awareness of integrated units of learning activity in place of compartmentalized subject disciplines, and activity and discovery learning by children working freely in groups. The participants carefully observed children at work. Each Circuit Education Officer who had been invited as an observer was in turn expected, with the help of the two teachers trained for him, to bring this awareness to the rest of the teachers in his circuit. Arrangements were also made for appointment of regional or district committees charged with the responsibility for qualitative development of primary-level education. These committees comprised Circuit Education Officers, Teachers' College representatives and teachers who had participated in or observed the centrally organized in-service education programme. Each such committee was assigned the task of planning in-service education of all teachers of primary level in the region or district. Representatives of teacher education institutions were invited as participants, with the additional objective of making it possible for them to use the material with teacher trainees in pre-service programmes. The head teachers of the schools in which the pilot teachers were working were brought together for one-day conferences during which the changes envisaged in primary-level education were discussed and the role of the head teacher in this programme of work was clearly enunciated. This project was completed in 1972.

(ii) Phase 2 (study groups). This project will involve the functioning of study groups of teachers for discussions based on actual try-out (in classroom situations) of the techniques discussed during the first phase. It will be effected during 1973, the year of trial teaching by the pilot teachers.

(iii) Phase 3 (Grades III-V) - 3 categories. Subsequently a similar breakthrough will be attempted in teaching methods in the higher grades of the primary level with two pilot teachers being trained per circuit as described before.

(iv) Follow-up

Report: another expected outcome of Phase I of the in-service project is the report produced by the teacher participants on the basis of talks, discussions and materials produced at workshop sessions during the course. This report is to be printed as a supplementary document that may be used by all teachers in Grades I and II, and it is hoped that it will help to generate similar reports as a consequence of training programmes organized at regional, district and circuit levels.

Feed-back (Newsletter): with a view to maintaining a continuous dialogue between the teachers trained and the design staff, and among the teachers themselves, a newsletter is circulated giving details of integrated programmes undertaken by these teachers, snippets on innovations introduced into the classroom by them, observations and comments on their work by heads of schools or supervisory staff, reports of similar work undertaken by teachers in other lands, and other relevant information.

Work assessment: continuous support and guidance to teachers in meeting day-to-day problem will be given during 1973, the trial teaching year, through regular assessments and discussions undertaken by supervisory personnel such as Circuit Education Officers and heads of schools.

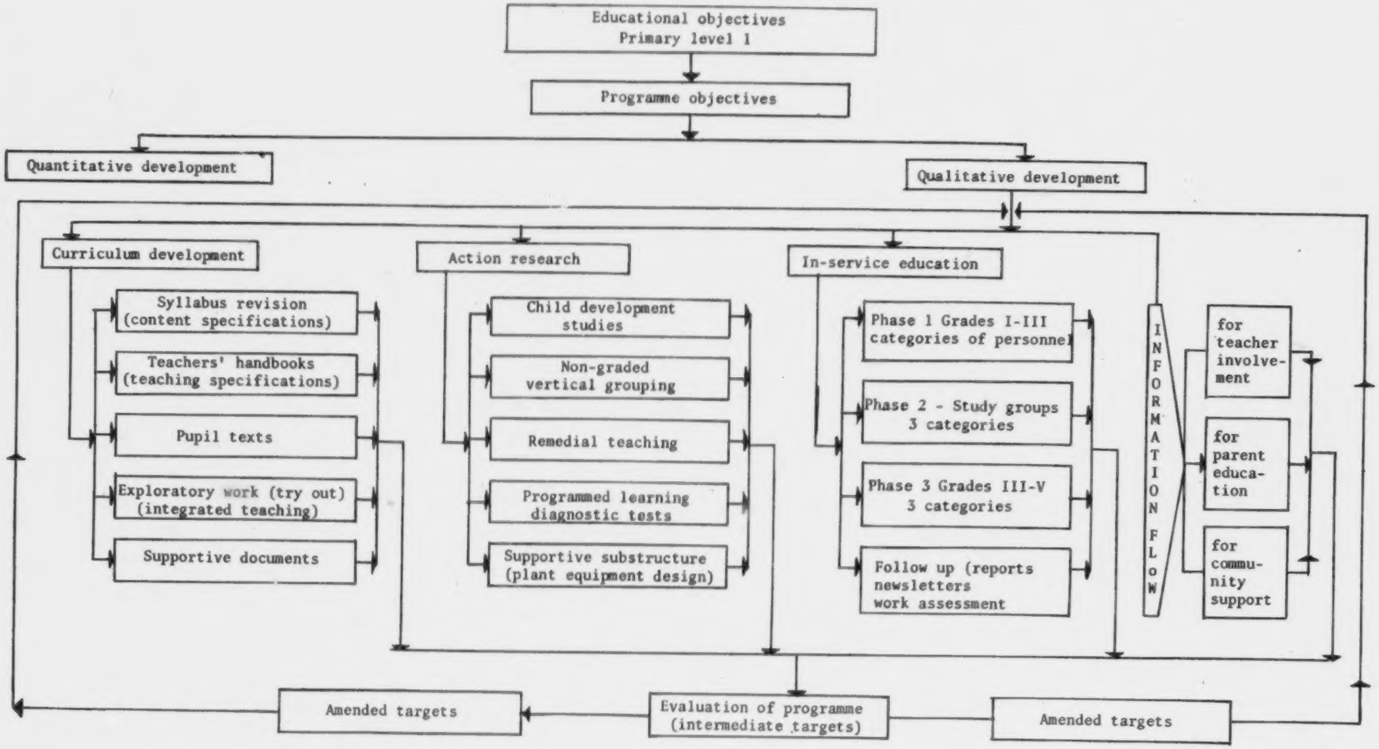
4. Information flow

In addition to the normal modes of information to teachers (circulars and official documents),the new approach to teaching is to be explained through a pamphlet published with a view to winning their support for large-scale try-out of these methods ; the pamphlet will relate the experiences of a group of children at home and in school. As a supplement to the in-service projects planned at the central and circuit levels, a programme of teacher education through radio broadcasts is planned ; this will involve various modes of presentation such as discussions on methods of teaching, workshops for analysis of taped material and actual classroom situations. In addition, publicity and consequent public support for the total programmes of changes at the primary level will be achieved through the use of media such as parent-teacher associations, press, radio, periodic pamphlets and filmstrips.

The overall plan for qualitative improvement of primary level education is presented in a diagrammatic form on the following page.

B. Resources

In 1968, education appears to have accounted for 16 % of the total recurrent expenditure and 4.9% of the total capital expenditure of the Government. In the estimates for 1970, while the proportion of recurrent expenditure (16%) remained the same, that of capital expenditure rose to 5.7%. In actual terms, the total expenditure rose from Rs. 463 million in 1968 to Rs. 522 million in 1969 and was estimated to be Rs. 622 million in 1971. Of this amount, in 1971, Rs. 184 million or 28% was set aside for the elementary education level which comprised the first 7 years of schooling. According to projections for the period 1970-1980,



OVER-ALL PLAN FOR QUALITATIVE DEVELOPMENT LEVEL 1 - PRIMARY EDUCATION

Educational objectives
Primary level 1
Programme objectives
Quantitative development
Qualitative development
Curriculum development
Syllabus revision (content specifications)
Teachers' handbooks (teaching specifications)
Pupil texts
Exploratory work (try out) (integrated teaching)
Supportive documents
Action research
Child development studies
Non-graded vertical grouping
Remedial teaching
Programmed learning diagnostic tests
Supportive substructure (plant equipment design)
In-service education
Phase 1 Grades I-III categories of personnel
Phase 2 - Study groups 3 categories
Phase 3 Grades III-V 3 categories
Follow up (reports newsletters work assessment
INFORMATION FLOW
for teacher involvement
for parent education
for community support
Amended targets
Evaluation of programme (intermediate targets)
Amended targets

it is expected that the total educational effort in financial terms will grow at a rate of 5.4% over the ten years.[1]

Although a considerable proportion of Government funds is spent on education, much remains to be done since even at present large numbers of pupils dropout after some years of schooling, before completing even the first educational cycle. Although almost all children are admitted to school, in 1965 only 50% went beyond Grade V, while it is expected that this proportion would have risen only to 60% in 1972. This results in a tremendous wastage of resources, learning motivation and teaching efforts.

In order to ensure that maximum use is made of financial resources allotted to education, there is a concerted effort on a number of points to provide more extensive and better facilities all round. The teaching force is being increased annually, so that the single- or two-teacher schools in remote areas may be better served. With a view to improving the quality of education provided, an annual output of 2,500 trained teachers is envisaged for 10 years in order to meet the estimated need of trained teachers for primary grades together with one teacher per five class-teachers for remedial teaching. As an interim measure, a three-year correspondence course has also been initiated from 1972 providing an additional 2,500 trained teachers a year from 1975. It is expected that the total recurrent costs for teacher education will rise from Rs.8.3 million in 1972 to Rs. 13 million in 1980.[2] Similarly, provision for in-service education of teachers has risen from Rs.1 million in 1968 to Rs. 1.5 million in 1971.

Education in remote areas depends as much on school buildings and teachers' quarters as on provision of teachers. This need is being met by putting up over 1,000 classrooms and over 100 teachers' quarters annually. In addition, the maintenance of school buildings and furniture annually requires Rs. 2.8 million on an average. It is fortunate for Sri Lanka that from 1967 to 1972 the Asian Regional Institute for School Building Research was located in this country because this institution was always available for consultations and guidance in design of buildings and equipment.

Another move towards making universal education a reality is the requirement that when new settlement schemes are initiated in scarcely populated areas of the country, each unit or settlement of population be provided with a school for its children.

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1. Ceylon. Ministry of Education. *Loan request to IBRD.* /Colombo/ February 1971. p. 302

2. _____. _____. *Medium-term Plan for Education 1972-1976.* /Colombo/ March 1972. Table 4(1).

Library services are another means of providing equality of educational opportunity, and this area is served by the supply of library books worth over Rs. 300,000 to schools, while about 200 teachers have been completely relieved of their teaching load in order to man the central libraries of educational circuits supplying library books to all schools in each circuit. Budgetary provision is also made for providing small rural schools with equipment and instructional materials so that the parents are not burdened with the additional need for equipping the schools for effective teaching. Each pupil at the primary level is required to buy at most only four textbooks, one each for the first language, the second language (where applicable), arithmetic and religion. Teachers are provided with free teachers' guides for instruction in these and other subjects. In addition to these resources, various welfare services help needy children, in the form of free books which local government authorities provide, free snacks at mid-day and the gift of spectacles and simple medicines needed in school.

Scholarships and bursaries in large quantities form another feature of the school system. As from 1973, the bursaries that were provided for able students in Grade VII are to be awarded instead to students at the end of Grade V.

Aid programmes from agencies such as UNICEF, Unesco, CEDO and the British Council continue to be used maximally in areas such as curriculum development, teacher training, vehicles for transport, consultation services, study tours, and fellowships.

Mention was made earlier of the decentralization of educational administration by the establishment of 15 Regional Departments in 1966. The main object was to enable a responsible representative of the Ministry of Education in the capacity of a Regional Director to take top level decisions in the speedy provision and use of facilities at the very locations where the functions are being performed. The better distribution of available facilities all over the country, which has resulted from this action, has proved that it has been a very wise and useful move. Hitherto educationally disadvantaged areas will be better served by a more equitable redistribution of teachers, through appointment of district teachers, i.e. teachers whose services will be restricted to the district to which they are appointed. Selection to higher levels of education is also increasingly being made on an area or local basis in order to even out the disparities prevailing in educational levels in different parts of the country. Moreover, teachers brought into teacher education institutions are sent back after training, initially to remote schools where they are expected to serve for over two years before they can request transfers to more congenial stations. The involvement of the rural population in the education of their children is achieved through organization of a closely-knit network of parent-teacher associations with representation at all levels of the hierarchy of educational administration, i.e. through circuit, district, regional and national bodies of parents and teachers. The representatives of the people in the National Assembly are also involved to a great extent in decisions regarding the development of education in their electorates. This move too is paying good dividends in an effort to even out the distribution and promotion of educational facilities throughout the island.

III. The future

A programme of changes in content and methods of education of such magnitude as is envisaged in the preceding section demands a rigorous and constant evaluation at all stages and levels of implementation. As a consequence of such evaluation, it is envisaged that continuous amendment and revision of the programme will be made at central, regional, district and circuit levels. It is hoped that such flexibility of design will ensure the realization of the basic objectives of the programme, i.e. to make it possible for children in primary grades to gain expected knowledge, skills and attitudes through meaningful, enjoyable and challenging activities. It is also hoped that teachers will gain experience and confidence through their own attempts, and adopt methods which promote learning by discovery and enquiry. They would further be assisted by voluntary and free exchange of views on professionally satisfying experiences among their own ranks. These factors will then reactivate the potential ingenuity and resourcefulness of the teachers so that it might be possible to envisage a shift of emphasis from content specifications (syllabus) as an end in itself - as is evident in schools today - to the handling of content merely as a means for the promotion of usable skills and wholesome attitudes essential for life in a future world.

Statistics of primary education
(public and private schools)

Table 1. Trends in primary school-age population and primary enrolment[1]

School year	Population of primary school age (000's)	Total primary enrolment (000's)[2]	Enrolment ratio %
1965[3]	1 824	1 736.1	95
1966[4]	1 581.5	1 696.3	107
1967[4]	1 615.2	1 645.6	102
1968[4]	1 640	1 679.5	102
1969[4]	1 660.6	1 753.3	106
1970[4]	1 668.4	1 694	102
1971[4]	1 671.5	1 692.5	101
1972[5]	1 666.4	...	...

1. In 1965, primary education comprised 6 grades, i.e. Grades I A, IB and II to V. Beginning in 1966, Grade I A was abolished and primary education comprises five grades, i.e. Grades I to V.
2. In enrolment for every grade, there are three main age-groups, represented, e.g. in Grade I, there is one-third of the five-year age-group, two-thirds of the six-year age-group, and one-fourth of the seven-year age-group. Therefore the actual enrolment figure in a grade is higher than the relevant age-group for that grade.
3. 6 grades (age-group 5-10 years inclusive).
4. 5 grades (age-group 5-9 years inclusive).
5. 5 grades (age-group 6-10 years inclusive).

Source: Perspectives for the Development of Second Level General Education, 1970-1980. Part II-Data, statistics, projections. Division of Secondary Education, Ministry of Education, February 1970. (Population data: page 49; enrolment data: p. 52)

Table 2. Enrolment by grade and repeaters, school year 1971

Grade	Total enrolment[1] (Both sexes)	Repeaters (included in total) (Both sexes)
I	419 954	105 744
II	357 116	72 709
III	341 382	65 163
IV	307 276	50 191
V	260 323	36 178
Total primary	[2]1 686 051	329 885

1. Government Schools only.
2. Of which 796,094 were girls.

Source: School Census Data

Table 3. Trends in the teaching staff and number of schools, primary and secondary levels combined

School year	Total number of teachers	Number of female teachers	Percentage female teachers	Pupil-teacher ratio	Number of schools
1965	90 514	46 766	52	...	9 329
1966	93 673	48 696	52	...	9 585
1967	92 982	48 436	52	...	9 801
1968[1]	93 425	49 855	53	...	[3]9 701
1969[1]	94 583	50 770	54	28	9 585
1970	97 864	48 419	49	29	9 628
1971[2]	92 558	...	...	27	9 502
1972	...	...	...	...	9 415

1. Data on teachers: Excluding Pirivena (Buddhist Religion oriented) Schools.

2. Data on teachers: Government schools only.

3. Excluding special schools and Pirivenas.

Source: Medium-term Plan for the development of education, 1972-1976. Ministry of Education, March 1972. Table (2/17)

Bulletin of the Unesco Regional Office
for Education in Asia
Number 14, June 1973

PRIMARY EDUCATION IN THAILAND

by Kamôl Sudaprasert

Primary education has been compulsory in Thailand since 1921. Formerly it consisted of only four years. Children between the ages of 7 to 14 are required to be in primary schools except those who have completed Grade IV. Since 1960 compulsory education has been extended to seven years, but this is provided at present only in about 23% of the villages.

The majority of children in Thailand receive only four years of education, but an increasing proportion are going on to the fifth grade. Dropout rates and repeater rates in primary education are still very high, the highest being for children repeating Grade I. This occurs mostly in the rural primary schools.

The factors which account for non-promotion of pupils are many and interactive. Problems which exist mostly in the rural areas such as teacher shortages, under-qualified teachers, lack of teaching materials and textbooks, reduce the efficiency and quality of primary education. Evaluation procedures, especially the end-of-year examination, tend to hamper the attainment of the aims and goals of teaching and learning activities. Increasing attention is given to solving these problems by the departments of the Ministry of education, the Department of Local Administration of the Ministry of Interior and the Provincial Administrative Organizations.

I. The system of primary education

Primary education has been compulsory in Thailand since 1921. Before 1960, it consisted of only four years, and all 7 year-olds were required to be in school till the end of Grade IV, or until the age of 14, whichever came first.

With the promulgation of the new National Scheme of Education in 1960, it was decided that the duration of compulsory education should be extended gradually to seven years depending upon the resources and readiness of each locality. Until now, because of economic constraints, only 1,245 out of 5,339 tambons[1] throughout the kingdom have been able to implement seven years' compulsory education.

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[1] Tambon : a village which combines four or five hamlets.

The lower primary school consists of Grades I-IV which are compulsory and free for all children. Before going to Grade I, some children between the ages of $3\frac{1}{2}$ and $5\frac{1}{2}$ attend two years of kindergarten, or a one-year infant class. But these schemes do not cover all children. The Government has adopted the principle that in each of the seventy-one provinces (Changwat) of the country there should be at least one state-owned kindergarten school to serve as a model for those citizens who may wish to establish kindergartens of their own. In addition, the Ministry of Education encourages the establishment of one-year infant classes in the public schools under its administration.

Since compulsory primary education consumes vast sums of money, the Government policy, as stipulated in the National Scheme of Education, encourages the establishment of private primary schools. Approximately 10% of the total enrolment in primary education is in private schools at the present time. But most of these schools are located in the urban areas.

Public primary schools can be classified as follows: (1) municipal schools; (2) governmental schools which are attached to the Department of General Education; (3) demonstration schools which are attached to teacher training colleges, the College of Education and some universities; and (4) rural schools, the vast majority of which are attached to Changwat Administrative Organizations. About 5% of the rural public primary schools are small schools with only one or two teachers; 25% of the rural schools are in temporary buildings or a salawat.[1] All public primary schools in Thailand are co-educational.

A. Administration and control

The Ministry of Education formerly had responsibility for all education below the university level. In 1959 the Government adopted a policy of decentralization. In conformity with this policy, the administration of public primary schools in municipal areas was transferred to the municipalities. In 1966, almost all the public primary schools in rural areas were transferred to the provincial administrative authority, called the Changwat Administrative Organization (CAO). The Department of General Education (formerly the Department of Elementary and Adult Education) now administers only schools which are reserved for experimentation and demonstration, a few upper primary schools situated in the villages where there is not yet compulsory education, and schools for socio-economically deprived children. Although school administration has by and large been transferred to the municipalities and the CAO, responsibilities for curriculum development, school standards, instructional supervision, and various instructional services continue to be vested in the Ministry of Education.

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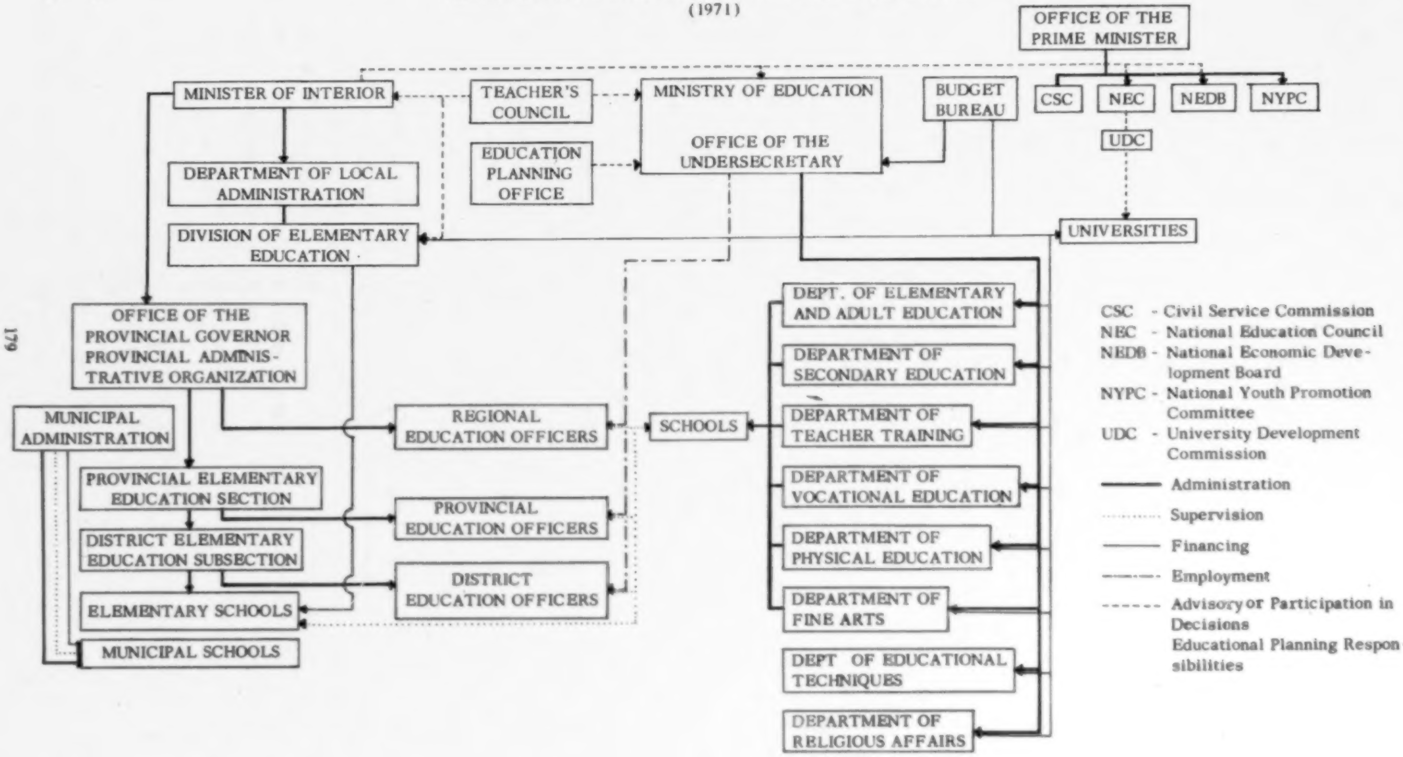
[1] A salawat is an open building located in a monastery.

THAILAND

ADMINISTRATIVE STRUCTURE OF THE EDUCATION SYSTEM
(1971)


OFFICE OF THE PRIME MINISTER
CSC
NEC
NEDB
NYPC
UDC
UNIVERSITIES
MINISTER OF INTERIOR
TEACHER'S COUNCIL
MINISTRY OF EDUCATION
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BUDGET BUREAU
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DIVISION OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION
OFFICE OF THE PROVINCIAL GOVERNOR PROVINCIAL ADMINIS-TRATIVE ORGANIZATION
MUNICIPAL ADMINISTRATION
PROVINCIAL ELEMENTARY EDUCATION SECTION
DISTRICT ELEMENTARY EDUCATION SUBSECTION
ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS
MUNICIPAL SCHOOLS
REGIONAL EDUCATION OFFICERS
PROVINCIAL EDUCATION OFFICERS
DISTRICT EDUCATION OFFICERS
SCHOOLS
DEPT. OF ELEMENTARY AND ADULT EDUCATION
DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY EDUCATION
DEPARTMENT OF TEACHER TRAINING
DEPARTMENT OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION
DEPARTMENT OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION
DEPARTMENT OF FINE ARTS
DEPT OF EDUCATIONAL TECHNIQUES
DEPARTMENT OF RELIGIOUS AFFAIRS
CSC - Civil Service Commission
NEC - National Education Council
NEDB - National Economic Development Board
NYPC - National Youth Promotion Committee
UDC - University Development Commission
Administration
Supervision
Financing
Employment
Advisory or Participation in Decisions
Educational Planning Responsibilities

B. Size of primary education, school year 1971/1972 (public and private schools)

Primary school-age population:	
lower primary (7-10 years)	4 085 983
upper primary (11-13 years)	2 714 547
Total enrolment in primary school:	
lower primary	4 785 522
upper primary	958 130
Proportion of girls in total primary enrolment	44.3%
Primary enrolment ratio	84.5%
Total number of teachers	184 447
Proportion of female teachers	43.3%
Proportion of trained teachers	72.6%
Pupil-teacher ratio	31
Total number of schools	29 269
Recurrent public expenditure on education at all levels (million Baht)	5 191.1
i) proportion spent on primary education	56.3%
ii) primary per pupil cost (Baht)	509

Educational evaluation at the primary school level is divided into two components. One is similar to formative evaluation, and is carried out at least five times a year; the other is a summative evaluation or the so-called end-of-year examination. The passing score is 50% of the total score of 1,000. Entrance examinations are mostly utilized to screen the children who want to enter Grade V (Pratom 5) and Grade VIII (Mathayom Suksa or MS 1).

Formative evaluation is the teacher's responsibility. "Automatic" promotion from one grade to another was introduced in 1964. The summative or end-of-year examination for all grades except Grades IV and VII is the school's responsibility. However, the District and Provincial Education Officers are responsible for the end-of-year examination in Grades IV and VII respectively. This end-of-year examination is taken within a period of 20 days before the schools close.

II. Policies, problems and experiments

A. Orientation of primary education

The objectives for both levels of primary education are the same. The general objectives include 36 statements divided into the following four categories: (1) self-realization, (2) human relationship, (3) economic efficiency, and (4) civic responsibility. In order to achieve these educational objectives, the elementary school curriculum prescribes a number of required subjects with time allotments for each. The curriculum pattern, however, is heavily oriented towards a Western form of education especially in relation to the organization of modern subjects. The medium of instruction is Thai, in the form used in the central plains of Thailand.

Curriculum research has been carried out both extensively and intensively by the Elementary Education Division, Department of General Education, and the Bangkok Institute for Child Study, College of Education. Research findings reveal that the goals of primary education tend to be too broad and too general to be of much help in establishing appropriate curricula and in evaluating pupil progress. The objectives are not formulated in measurable terms or in terminal performance specifications. The content of education is oriented toward examination criteria with an overemphasis on academic subjects. Thus the system attempts to prepare all school children for further education even though not more than 35% of fourth-grade children have access to upper primary education and only a small percentage from that level proceeds to secondary and higher education.

The quality of primary education is uneven. Urban schools are more efficient, offering relatively good basic education to a large percentage of the relevant age-groups, whereas children in rural areas find programmes of limited scope and quality.

Because of the shortage of qualified teachers and lack of teaching materials and textbooks, instruction in rural schools stresses reading, writing, arithmetic and subject memorization. In some schools there are no syllabi, lesson plans or curriculum guides for teachers. In schools where teaching materials are available, many teachers are inclined to depend on textbooks and memorization of subject-matter rather than encourage active pupil participation.

The examination system in primary education is another problem, and its effects are felt throughout the educational process. So long as subject-matter examinations which put a premium upon rote-learning are required, the curriculum and teaching methods will continue to emphasize memorization and preparation for examinations rather than actual learning. The most noxious effect is that many students, even parents, feel that education consists only of preparation for interim and end-of-year examinations. And teachers tend to blame children's learning abilities rather than their own poor instructional methods when their pupils do not pass the end-of-year examination.

The Ministry of Education has recently completed a systematic appraisal of the existing curriculum with a definite intention to reform it at many levels. The conclusions were as follows: "..... curriculum objectives of the elementary level were too broad and idealistic with respect to what primary pupils can actually learn, while the curriculum content was primarily subject-matter oriented, inducing, to a large extent, only cognitive development. Besides the stated purposes, content prescription and time allotment proportions, little attention was given to suggesting ways and means for teachers to organize, in the light of children's needs and curiosities, the learning programme, materials and desirable environments which lead to sensible learning experiences"

The lack of instructional materials for the use of teachers is a serious handicap, especially in the rural areas. Very few schools have such curriculum guides or lesson plans. Besides, those which are available tend to follow those used in the metropolitan area of Bangkok-Thonburi, which is not appropriate for rural children. It is expected that, within the period of the Third Five-Year Plan (1972-1976), the Ministry of Education, through the Department of Education Techniques in which a Division of Curriculum Development was recently established, will give considerable priority to curriculum reform, including textbook re-writing.

With a view to introducing modern mathematics in primary education, the Supervisory Unit of the former Department of Elementary and Adult Education launched in 1968 an experimental programme in a small number of schools in Bangkok-Thonburi. This programme encompasses the development of curriculum, textbooks, workbooks, teaching materials, and intensive teacher training. In view of the success of the experiment, it is expected that this programme will be extended to more primary schools in the next few years.

The Supervisory Unit for primary education was organized in 1954 with responsibilities to improve instructional methods, curriculum, and in-service teacher training. In each educational region and province there is a supervisory unit, consisting of at least 10 educational supervisors, one for each subject, and a specialist in educational evaluation. The educational supervisors are attached to the Department of General Education. It is hoped that the quality of primary education especially in the rural areas can be improved through stricter supervision. At present, however, supervision is limited by lack of personnel and transportation, particularly in remote rural areas. These shortcomings are receiving special attention of the Ministry of Education.

Although the examination system, especially the end-of-year evaluation, persists, the process of evaluating primary education has been improved. Formative evaluation has been emphasized. An automatic promotion programme, initially in Grades I, III, V and VI, has been implemented in quite a number of schools; it will be extended to a larger number of schools in the next few years.

B. Problems and experiments

1. Finances. The Budget Bureau (Prime Minister's Office) allocates all public primary education funds through the Department of Local Administration (Ministry of Interior) for the municipal and rural primary schools, and through the Department of General Education (Ministry of Education) for the rest. In 1971, the total educational outlays amounted to 5,191.1 million Baht (US $249.6 million) or US $6.7 per pupil. Approximately 2,921 million Baht, 56.3 % of the total educational outlays, or 509 Baht (US $24.5) per pupil, was spent on public primary schooling.

The major item of public recurring expenditure (90 %) is teachers' salaries. Average teachers' salaries have risen slightly less than per capita income, and this fact has tended to induce teacher shortages and the recruitment of low qualified teachers in the rural areas.

About 25 % of the total budget goes to school-building construction and facilities and about 2 % is used for teaching materials.

2. Disparity in educational opportunity. In 1971, the pupil enrolment in the lower primary level (Grades I-IV) was 4,785,522, of which 80 % was in rural primary schools. The pupil enrolment in the upper primary level (Grades V-VII) was 958,130, of which only 50 % was in rural primary schools. These figures show that the majority of pupils received only a four-year education; this holds particularly true for children in the rural areas. Nevertheless, the progression rate from Grade IV to Grade V has increased steadily every year (18.8 % in 1955-56; 35.5 % in 1968-69). These national averages, however, concealed large differences between provinces: for example, the highest provincial progression rate was about 85 % and the lowest about 15 %.

The disparity of educational opportunity can be seen by examining enrolment ratios. The national average of lower primary enrolment in the proper age-group (7-11) is 91.1 %, but these statistics do not reveal regional differences. For example, enrolment in one province was 150 % (probably because of repeaters and early schooling) but only 40 % in another.

3. Dropouts and repeaters. Thailand still faces the problem of having 48 % of the children who enter the first grade repeating grades; thus it may take 5 or 6, and in a few cases 7 years, to complete four grades. In addition, dropout rates average about 6 % each year. The repeater rates in Grades I-IV, however, have been decreasing in

the past few years but are still significant. In 1961, 32% of the pupils in the first grade were repeaters, but by 1971 the proportion had decreased to 16%.

A study of repeaters in 1965 indicated that 50% were in the first grade, 25% in the second, 18% in the third and 7% in the fourth. A follow-up study in 1971 yielded similar results. Thus more than 70% of repeaters in the lower primary cycle were found in the first two grades. Repeater rates in rural schools are much higher than in urban schools.

With decentralization of public school administration to the local authorities, it was expected that the municipal and provincial administrative authorities would assume a greater proportion of the financial burden. Although 25% of the local budgets are intended to be utilized for primary education, many localities have not been able to meet this target because of economic constraints.

In a country such as Thailand, plagued by increasing financial scarcities combined with rising expectations for education on the part of the population, careful planning of primary school development is essential to reduce wide disparities in educational facilities and opportunities in different parts of the country and to make efficient use of available resources. This is being done through operational plans prepared by the Department of Local Administration (Division of Rural Elementary Education) and Changwat Administrative Organizations, with the collaboration of the National Education Council and the Educational Planning Division of the Ministry of Education.

Primary education suffers from a shortage of trained teachers mainly in rural areas, since better teachers normally find employment in urban areas. In 1971, educational statistics indicated that about 7% of primary school teachers in the country were degree holders, about 20% diploma holders, 51% lower certificate holders, while 22% had no proper certification.

The problems of teacher shortage and low qualification are being tackled by several programmes: teacher training for rural development, established by the Department of Teacher Training; training for non-certificate teachers, by the Department of General Education in collaboration with the Department of Local Administration; additional incentive salaries for teachers in remote rural areas; and lower certificate training by means of both day-time and evening courses.

The shortage of teachers and the lack of classrooms and teaching materials, including textbooks, contribute to the low quality of primary education. To alleviate material shortages, a programme of free textbooks and teaching materials is included in the Third Five-Year Plan. Approximately 150 million Baht (US$ 7.2 million) has been allocated for this purpose.

It is expected that the reduction of the wide disparities in educational facilities and opportunities will help reduce the repetition rates in primary schools. In addition, automatic promotion is under consideration. Initially there were apprehensions that an "automatic" promotion system might lead to decline in "standards". The experience of trying out the scheme in a few schools has been encouraging, and in 1971 it was decided to extend the experiment further to cover altogether 219 schools.

Statistics of primary education
(public and private schools)

Table 1. Trends in primary school-age population and primary enrolment

School year	Population of primary school age*		Total primary enrolment**		Enrolment ratio (%)		Annual enrolment increase (%)	
	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper
1965/66	3 500 087	2 384 950	4 013 200	488 972	114.7	20.3		
1966/67	3 529 666	2 431 975	4 128 976	541 022	117.0	22.2	2.9	11.8
1967/68	3 634 722	2 478 922	4 295 453	573 991	118.2	23.2	4.0	6.1
1968/69	3 746 707	2 525 287	4 415 699	661 046	117.9	26.2	2.8	15.2
1969/70	3 844 366	2 572 960	4 543 663	724 980	118.2	28.2	2.9	9.7
1970/71	3 949 811	2 619 961	4 651 410	849 394	117.8	32.4	2.4	17.2
1971/72	4 085 983	2 714 547	4 785 522	958 130	117.1	35.3	2.9	12.8
1972/73	4 223 348	2 808 446	4 949 700	1 013 400	117.2	36.1	3.4	5.8

* Age-group: lower primary is 7-10, upper primary is 11-13.

** It is estimated that about 1.3 and 16.0 per cent of the total enrolment are under-age and over-age children respectively.

Table 2. Enrolment by grade and sex, and repeaters, school year 1971/72
(Total boys and girls)

Grade	Total enrolment	Repeaters (included in total)
I	1 517 643	368 694
II	1 195 781	169 798
III	1 117 998	143 209
IV	954 100	59 184
V	385 822	32 465
VI	315 341	15 873
VII	256 967	8 302
Total primary	5 743 652	797 525
- Urban	1 253 109	96 464
- Rural	4 490 543	701 061

Table 3. Trends in the teaching staff and number of primary schools

School year	Total number of teachers	Number of female teachers	Percentage female teachers	Pupil-teacher ratio	Number of schools
1965/66	134 929	50 447	37.4	33	27 004
1966/67	140 832	53 817	38.2	33	27 262
1967/68	145 847	56 564	38.8	33	27 699
1968/69	155 393	62 928	40.5	32	27 993
1969/70	162 773	66 981	41.2	32	28 470
1970/71	171 496	72 788	42.4	32	29 033
1971/72	184 447	*79 921	43.3	31	29 269
1972/73	197 238	*87 475	44.4	30	29 788

* Projected data

Table 4. Distribution of schools by type and by size, school year 1971/72

	Number of schools	enrolment involved
A. By type of schools:		
1. Urban:	3 026	1 253 109
Rural:	26 243	4 490 543
2. Public:	27 148	4 972 943
Private:	2 121	770 709
3. Single sex:	-	-
Co-educational:	29 269	5 743 652
4. One-teacher schools:	1 100	...
Two-teacher schools:	6 600	...
B. By size (number of pupils)[1]:		
49 or less	2 050	Not available
50 - 99	6 900	
100 - 149	6 470	
150 - 199	3 670	
200 - 299	3 880	
300 - 499	2 810	
500 - 999	1 200	
1,000 and over	168	

1. Projected data ; excluding private schools.

SECTION 1.2

THE REFORM OF PRIMARY EDUCATION IN THE USSR

Bulletin of the Unesco Regional Office
for Education in Asia
Number 14, June 1973

THE REFORM OF PRIMARY EDUCATION IN THE USSR

by Yuri Ivanov

From 1966 onwards, successful measures have been taken in the Union of Soviet Socialist Republic to reform the content of school education. School syllabuses and textbooks are being adapted to meet the requirements of the development of science, technology and culture ; the instructional matter is divided out more rationally between the various years of study ; measures are being taken to avoid over-burdening the children, by ridding syllabuses and textbooks of over-detailed material and subjects of secondary importance ; systematic teaching of the fundamentals of science is now begun in the 4th instead of the 5th school year ; and there are now some optional classes, which children are free to attend or not, as they wish. Primary teaching has an important part to play in the further improvement of the work of general secondary schools ; for practical teaching experience and experimental research have proved conclusively that children have considerably more everyday experience and greater cognitive powers than was supposed when the syllabus for the "old" four-year primary schools was drawn up, and that, consequently, children of primary school age can be far more effectively taught than in the past.

For a number of years, the question of improving the planning of primary school teaching has attracted the attention of scientists, psychologists and teachers : and important work on the subject has been done by L.V. Zankov, D.B. Elkonin, M.A. Melnikov, N.S. Rozhdestvensky, A.A. Lyublinskaya, S.M. Yazykov and V.V. Davydov. Their efforts have been directed, for many years, to producing the most effective

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Reprinted from Ivanov, Yuri. *The reform of primary education in the USSR.* Paris, Unesco, 1971. 12 p. mimeo. (International Commission on The Development of Education, Series C: Innovations, no. 14)

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system of primary education and working out methods whereby they combine teaching with development of those personality traits which a child needs to have in order successfully to acquire knowledge of any subject. The scientists, in the course of the experiment, have adopted a new approach to the question of the relation between pedagogy and psychology, between experiment and teachers' experience. Psychological methodology has become part of the system of pedagogical research. All this has rendered it possible to make a detailed investigation of the inner mechanism of the child's development in the course of instruction. The experiment has proved that the actual capacities of schoolchildren of various ages (including the younger ones) are far in excess of what is usually supposed.

It was after scientists, practical teachers and methodologists had been experimenting for some years that the first new syllabuses were drawn up (1962); they were designed for a three-year primary school course. As the new syllabuses were tried out experimentally on an increasing scale, steps were taken to complete and improve the new content of primary education. At the last stage (1968/1969 school year) preceding the general introduction of the new syllabuses into the schools, tests were made on over half a million pupils. The main conclusion was that the new syllabus for three-year primary education is suitable for all normally developed children, whether or not they have received any pre-school training of any kind. The significance of this reform is that - as is borne out by experience - pupils can be brought to a more advanced stage of development in a shorter period of time, which provides favourable conditions for their subsequent education. In addition it gives the Soviet secondary school, as it were, an extra year, thanks to the fact that children now begin to receive systematic instruction in their mother tongue, mathematics and other subjects a year earlier then they used to.

What then are the distinguishing features of the new syllabuses for three-year primary schools?

As regards instruction in reading and use of the mother tongue, the syllabus is designed mainly to develop the children's use of speech and to devote closer attention to the analysis of language structures. Study of the Russian language (mother tongue) comprises the following sections:

1. "Instruction in reading and writing and the use of speech".
2. "Reading and the development of speech".
3. "Grammar, spelling and the development of speech".

These three sections are further subdivided. Thus "Instruction in reading and writing" covers: (a) reading and speech development;

(b) writing and speech development. "Reading and speech development" includes: (a) subject matter of texts read; (b) acquiring skill in reading; (c) work on the text; (d) learning in practice to distinguish different types of text. And "Grammar, spelling and speech development" is broken down into: (a) sounds and letters; (b) words; (c) clauses (d) connected speech, calligraphy. This section also includes a study of words the spelling of which cannot be checked by analysis.

Teaching children to read and write involves the following: (1) teaching them to read in a short time (3 months); (2) teaching them how to write the letters correctly and how to join them up into words; (3) laying the foundations for learning how to spell correctly.

Whilst teaching children to read and write, the teacher also trains them (by organizing excursions, encouraging them to be observant, and so on) to take a lively interest in their surroundings, so as to extend and clarify their ideas of the world and enrich their vocabulary and powers of expression in general.

Reading and writing are taught by the phonic analytic and synthetic method. Children practise splitting up sentences into words, words into syllables, syllables into sounds and then, by forming words out of syllables and clauses out of words, learn to read. At the same time, they learn how to represent sounds by letters, and how to compose words out of letters and syllables in the order in which they occur in the reading lesson, and by this means they acquire the art of writing. The period allocated for learning to read and write finishes before 1 December.

By the end of this period, children are capable of reading consciously, correctly and fluently, syllable by syllable. From 1 December onwards, they embark on the study of reading and grammar, using reading primers and grammar books.

The syllabus for the teaching of reading in Grades I-III is designed also to give the children correct notions and conceptions about the world around them. This is done on the basis of the contents of the books they read, and by giving the children planned and systematic information about the specific objects, facts and phenomena encountered in nature and society.

The reading syllabus comprises: (1) reading texts on specific themes designed to convey the required notions and conceptions; (2) practising reading; (3) acquiring the skills necessary for working on texts; (4) gaining a practical knowledge of the various types of literary texts.

The content of the reading matter contained in the syllabus is chosen in accordance with an ideological theme, which makes it easier for the teacher to systematize his teaching and educational work, relate reading lessons to ordinary life and extend and enrich his pupils' everyday experience.

In Grade I, pupils master the art of reading whole words correctly, fluently and with understanding, pronouncing them clearly and distinctly and using the right intonation to mark the end of a clause and between clauses; they also learn to pick out by ear the significant words in a sentence, and to listen to what the teacher reads or recounts.

In Grade II, they continue to learn to read intelligently, great importance being attached to putting in the expression: the logical stresses (though not described as such), pauses, use of intonation to convey meaning. They learn to divide texts up into their semantic parts, to pick out the basic thought, distinguish between main and secondary elements, make an outline of the text and give a detailed, concise account of what they have read.

The children themselves discover words and expressions with which to describe events and phenomena, learn to distinguish the meanings of words as used in different texts and continue to extend their vocabulary, making it both more fluent and more precise. Grade III is the last in three-year primary education.

In Grade III, pupils are required to read texts corresponding to their level with understanding and expression; explain the meaning of the words holding the key to the content of what they have read, pick out synonyms (without necessarily using this term); identify particularly graphic words; and analyse texts, formulating correctly the principal thought contained therein. By the end of Grade III, pupils are able, on their own, to divide a text into complete semantic units and draw up a plan of it; give a concise and selective account of its contents; compose stories from their own observation, relating to the texts they have read; collect material for a story centred round a certain character; compare two characters in one and the same or different stories (on the basis of one or two characteristics); and distinguish in practice between different types of text.

Through lessons spent on reading books about history, pupils learn to handle popular educational texts, to state briefly what they have read or been told, draw up a simple outline, make an appraisal of events and phenomena, employ socio-historical terms when expressing themselves, and decipher historical sketch-maps.

In addition to the general aims of primary schooling as a whole, the teaching of grammar and spelling in Grades I-III has its own specific targets.

Children in the primary grades acquire certain grammatical knowledge, skills and habits having a close bearing on the content of the systematic courses given in higher grades. At the same time, they develop their aural comprehension and their skill in the handling of literary language and acquire familiarity with the basic elements of language (phonemes, words, clauses).

Their knowledge of the elements of grammar and spelling develops childrens' ability to compare, classify and analyse linguistic phenomena, picking out what is essential, and this in turn promotes their intellectual development and ability to handle speech.

The teaching of grammar and spelling in the primary grades is divided into four sections, as follows: "Sounds and letters", "Words", "Clauses", "Connected speech".

The primary school course on grammar and spelling includes only the important, basic material essential to enable children to acquire an elementary understanding of the composition and structure of Russian speech together with well-grounded skills in the handling of the language such as to allow them to express themselves clearly and prepare them for the systematic study of grammar and spelling in the higher grades.

On the other hand, the primary school course necessarily comprises a fairly wide range of material relating to various aspects of language: the phonetic composition of words, the division of words into syllables and morphemes, the various parts of speech and their most important forms, the simplest types of sentence and clause, and the rules for spelling emerging from the above.

An important place in the syllabus is allocated to the practical study of the lexical significance of words, words with many different meanings and synonymous words - which, incidentally, makes the syllabus now proposed markedly different from the previous one.

The treatment of grammatical phenomena must be in line with the data of linguistics. Through studying grammatical categories and forms, the pupils must learn to understand their basic significance and formal characteristics. In order to give children a correct and thorough understanding of grammatical concepts (parts of speech, for instance) and the rules of spelling, they are taught how to distinguish grammatical and orthographical phenomena by both meaning and forms.

The teaching of spelling (orthography and punctuation) is based on the knowledge of grammar already acquired. Thus the whole of the primary course on the mother tongue is so organized that pupils study grammar and spelling rules before doing practical exercise on orthography and punctuation. It is clear from the foregoing that the primary school course in the mother tongue, whilst being within the grasp of small children, is on a fairly high theoretical level.

The new mathematics syllabus presents a certain degree of continuity with the ole, which already takes into account as appropriate the experience acquired by primary school-teachers and also, to some extent, reflects the tasks facing Soviet schools at the present time.

Nevertheless, a whole series of questions are treated quite differently in the new syllabus.

The mathematics course for Grades I-III under the new syllabus is organically linked with the secondary school mathematics course.

The basis of this course is the arithmetic of natural numbers and fundamental quantities. To this are added the elements of geometry and the rudiments of algebra, which are integrated into the body of arithmetical knowledge, leading to a more fundamental understanding of numbers, arithmetical operations and mathematical relations.

Whilst continuing to devote considerable attention to giving a sound, virtually automatic ability to carry out calculations, the syllabus also aims at raising, within the mental capacity of the pupils, the level of analysis of the instructional content and at giving them an understanding of the laws underlying the mathematical facts studied and of the links between the various phenomena considered.

The increased emphasis on theory has a decisive effect on pupils' mathematical development. This is one of the most important means of tapping under-exploited intellectual potentialities, since this approach makes it considerably easier for pupils to assimilate new material intelligently and link it up with what they have learned before.

With a view to making it as easy as possible to place the material in its general context, several changes have been made both to the content and to the presentation of the syllabus.

A feature which keeps recurring throughout the syllabus is the attention drawn to the interrelation between direct and inverse operations, between the components of operations and the results.

Great stress is placed on the constant use of comparison, confrontation and juxtaposition of inter-linked conceptions, operations and problems, and the discernment of resemblances and differences between the facts under consideration. One of the fundamental principles underlying the new syllabus is that each new question must be presented in a wide general context, though accessible to the understanding of the particular age-group concerned.

In Grade I, children are to be taught the basic properties of sum and difference. Beginning with concrete quantities, the children first learn, for instance, that if we take one quantity and add another to it, the result will be the same whether the second quantity is added as a whole or in parts; they then apply the knowledge so acquired to operations with numbers.

Subsequently, at the beginning of the second year, they must learn to formulate these rules, and write them down using letters. A knowledge of the properties of operations serves as a basis for teaching children the various forms of calculation.

The result of this approach is to enable children to carry out their calculations with a conscious knowledge of what they are doing, and to make it easier for them to use various different methods of solving one and the same problem, so that they learn, from the very outset, to look out for the most rational method of arriving at a solution.

The new syllabus links the study of operations up to 20 and operations up to 100 more closely together than did the former one. After learning numbers, addition and subtraction up to 10, pupils have to spend some time on numbers from 10 to 20 and the different items of which they are composed; after which they go on to the study of numbers up to 100. As to the fundamental techniques of addition and subtraction based on the properties of sum and difference, the syllabus is such that they can be taken from the outset in a wider numerical field.

This method of studying operations with numbers up to 100 provides a good basis for arriving at the necessary generalization, besides giving pupils longer time and more varied material on which to practise applying the operations they have learned, so helping them to become proficient in mental calculation.

The teaching of multiplication and division tables has also been changed: in Grade I, children are taught only the notions of these operations (by means of practical operations with concrete numbers), without learning the actual tables. The lessons on this subject should be composed of various practical exercises illustrating the meaning of these operations and their most common applications.

Multiplication and division tables are taken in Grade II; but the teacher, before giving the actual tables, explains the connexion between multiplication and division, the two different types of division (division of numbers and division of concrete objects) and the use of commutation in multiplication. This makes it possible to work out and memorize one multiplication table only for each constant multiplicand, and then use it for the solution of examples obtained by inverting the factors and of corresponding examples involving division.

In teaching multiplication and division, particular attention is paid to demonstrating the properties of the product and the quotient, and also to special instances of multiplication and division (by nought and one).

In addition to mental calculation, an important place in the syllabus is allocated to the teaching of written calculation, which begins in Grade II, with operations up to a thousand. With a sound knowledge of the basic principles of arithmetical operations and sufficient practice, children should reach the stage of being able to make fast and accurate written calculations automatically (they should be able, nevertheless, to explain at any stage the mechanics of what they are doing.

The syllabus for Grade III covers a study of numeration and the four arithmetical operations on multi-digit numbers. However, once children have been taught the principles of the mental and written numeration of multi-digit numbers and the algorithms of written calculations, the practical exercises can be confined mainly to operations on numbers up to 1,000,000.

Another means used for helping pupils consciously to assimilate and understand the general significance of arithmetic is to introduce the use of letters as symbols in doing problems and exercises and studying the properties of operations. The use of letters as mathematical symbols is first introduced in Grade I, where they are used to designate the answer to be arrived at when formulating the problem. In Grade II (even when going over the ground covered in Grade I), letters are used as symbols for writing down the general laws established earlier on the basis of concrete examples.

An important place in the syllabus is allocated to the study of various quantities in close relation to arithmetic (value, quantity and price; distance, time and speed with a body travelling at constant velocity, etc.). The study of quantities covers methods and units of measurement, the relation between quantities and their interdependence, which is eventually expressed in the form of a table and sometimes (in the simpler cases) by means of a formula.

In the teaching of geometry, considerable changes have been made. In the proposed syllabus, geometry occupies an important place; it is, as a rule, closely linked to the study of arithmetical operations (particularly in Grades I and II) and is, at the same time, designed to serve a specific purpose.

In connexion with the enlargement of the geometry syllabus, more attention is devoted to systematic practical work by the pupils; they are required to make geometrical figures by drawing them, cutting them out, producing them by bending sheets of paper and modelling; they also have to do exercises designed to teach them how to recognize certain geometrical figures in everyday life and on paper (including cases where these figures constitute one element of a more complex configuration) and how to use the most common types of drawing and measuring apparatus (ruler, set square, compasses, tape-measure). Such are the processes best suited to solving the tasks of geometry teaching in the primary mathematics syllabus. The aim is to familiarize the pupils, through their own practical work, with certain properties of the figures examined and to enable them to apply the knowledge they have acquired for the solution of concrete problems. Through practical problems involving the position, shape and dimensions of the elements of figures, pupils acquire an elementary notion of space and the ability to reflect logically on the basis of visual observation, all of which is of the greatest importance as a preparation for a polytechnical education.

In the primary grades, nature study is taught as a separate subject; it is introduced in Grades II and III, by what is known as "observations". Children in Grade II study inanimate and animate nature (land, water, air, plants, animals) and the seasonal changes in nature and labour (forests, orchards, kitchen gardens) and their causes. In Grade III, they study "the diversity of nature in our native country" (position of the country on the globe and the map, surface and mineral resources, rivers, lakes and seas, native fauna and flora, etc.), and "man and nature" (structure of the human body and the preservation of health, man the subjugator and transformer of nature, etc.). Children are taught, in a form they can understand, about the constant interdependence of natural phenomena, and the changes in the life of plants and animals. All this, together with the other subjects they study, develops their powers of observation and their ability to discern the causes of phenomena, to compare them with other phenomena and to draw general conclusions.

A considerable place in the new syllabuses is occupied by polytechnical training for junior schoolchildren. These courses serve to widen children's experience and increase their knowledge of technology and productive work, besides teaching them practical labour skills and habits, industriousness, love of work and the ability to work in a team. Special attention is devoted to teaching them the ability, which is indispensable in any kind of working activity, to plan and verify their own work and check and assess what they have done.

A great deal of attention, of course, continues to be paid to such subjects as physical education, music, singing and art. There are at least two classes of physical education per week, and one class each of music and art.

Thus the advantage of the new primary school syllabuses is that they provide greater possibilities for educating the pupils to a higher level of development. The improvement of teaching in primary schools depends mainly on the ability to make it more effective, both didactically and from the point of view of development, and to make the pupils think more for themselves.

The syllabuses as a whole, the various subjects they comprise, and the exercises given in the textbooks, are divided in such a way as to encourage teachers to apply methods of teaching designed to stimulate children's intellectual activity and make them eager to acquire new knowledge.

The curriculum for Grades I-III likewise corresponds to the new content of primary education. In schools where Russian is the language of instruction, it is as follows:

Subjects	Number of hours per week in Grades I	II	III
Russian language	12	10	10
Mathematics	6	6	6
Nature study	-	2	2
Art	1	1	1
Music and singing	1	1	1
Physical education	2	2	2
Labour training	2	2	2
Total number of compulsory lessons per week	24	24	24

In schools where the medium of instruction is not Russian, the total number of hours per week is usually increased by 1 or 2 in each grade for the teaching of the mother tongue. The distribution of time as between study of Russian and study of the native tongue differs. When it comes to mathematics and other subjects, the number of hours allocated to them is the same in all schools in the country (whether the language of instruction is Russian or not).

A great deal of work has been done on producing new primary school textbooks, manuals of methodology, teaching materials and visual aids. The services of the best teachers, methodologists and educationists were enlisted for this purpose.

The introduction of the new syllabuses and manuals into Grades I-III was preceded by the re-training of the teachers, with the help of both special institute for improving teachers' qualifications and higher educational establishments (including, first and foremost, teacher training colleges). In training teachers to work with the new syllabuses, special attention was devoted to theoretical problems, the psychology of teaching, problems of method, health, safety at work and technical aids to teaching. Journals on educational method also play an important part in extending and deepening teachers' knowledge and improving their professional skill. The journals "Načal'naja skola (The primary school), Narodnoe obrazovanie (National education), Sovetskaja pedagogika (Soviet pedagogy), Sem'ja i skola (Family and school) and a number of others regularly publish articles and information on questions relating to the content and methods of teaching in primary grades.

The process of the general change-over to the new syllabuses has been the subject of a special study by the Ministries of Education of the Union Republics, the USSR Academy of Pedagogical Sciences and the USSR Ministry of Education. Their general conclusions were extremely favourable.

The suitability of the contents of the new primary school syllabuses is proved by the results obtained with a three years' course under the new syllabuses, as compared with the four years' course under the syllabuses formerly used in many Russian schools. The figures are as follows:

	Number of pupils having reached the standard required level on completion of the course (in %)	
Type of work	In Grade III (with new syllabuses)	In Grade IV (with old syllabuses)
Dictation	95.2	92.5
Mathematical problems	96.3	79.1
Arithmetical examples	96.3	93.8

It is clear, both from tests carried out in a relatively large number of schools and also from the observation of children at work during lessons, that the overwhelming majority of pupils succeed in mastering the content of the new syllabuses. Grade I pupils, for instance, distinguish clearly between vowel and consonant sounds and between soft and hard consonants, know how to indicate that a particular consonant is soft, understand the rules concerning vowels after sibilants, and so on. The majority of Grade II pupils were found to have understood the composition of words: in the tests, 92.8% indicated the root correctly, 96.8% the prefix, 91.5% suffixes and 94.6% endings. Grade III students have a sound grasp of the elementary facts about the parts of speech covered by the new syllabus, and also have a fair knowledge of syntax.

In mathematics, Grade I pupils have a satisfactory grasp of the sequence of natural numbers and of oral and written numeration up to 100, and are able to read mathematical expressions, compare numbers and make use of commutation in addition. Grade II pupils were found to have a sound knowledge of multiplication tables and the division of numbers, as well as the part played by commutation in multiplication; they also have assimilated the processes of multiplying and dividing sums by numbers. The problems involving the use of multiplication and division tables were solved by 96 to 97% of the pupils in this grade. Grade III pupils are acquainted with the numeration of multi-digit numbers and the decimal system, understand the significance of mathematical expressions and have a sound grasp of the elements of geometry.

Thus the experience of schools which have worked with the new syllabuses shows that it is possible for children to learn some concepts and rules at an earlier age and that the change in the method of approach to the material studied facilitates the pupils' assimilation of it. The introduction of new syllabuses does not in itself, of course, automatically solve the problems of improving children's development, but only creates conditions for doing so; and although the basic ideas of the new content of primary education have stood the test of time, a great deal still remains to be done to improve syllabuses and textbooks even further, to devise appropriate teaching aids, to amass and assess teaching experience and to give wide publicity to effective teaching methods and techniques.

SECTION 2

SOME PROBLEMS OF FIRST LEVEL OF EDUCATION

Bulletin of the Unesco Regional Office
for Education in Asia
Number 14, June 1973

IDENTIFYING AND CONTROLLING THE SOURCES OF WASTAGE IN PRIMARY EDUCATION

by M.A. Brimer

The term "educational wastage" is understandable in those systems of education which permit repetition or dropout. Those nations of the world which employ automatic promotion and which effectively implement a compulsory period of schooling recognize ineffectiveness and inefficiency in their system in failure to achieve learning objectives but avoid the term "wastage" since it seems to imply economic considerations which are more appropriate to industry than they are to schools. Such nations are usually affluent and are more inclined to specify the objectives of learning in terms of personal benefit to the learner than in terms of benefit to the economic system.

For the great majority of nations of the world, however, investment in educational resources represents a massive input of national wealth from which output of productive manpower must be sought. Even if the implications of investment in primary education for manpower are indirect and difficult to articulate, the fact that these nations have an aspiration to universal literacy and numeracy indicates the degree of priority they wish to assign to achieving equity in human dignity and to developing within the population those skills which are instrumental in all future learning. It is not surprising that developing nations should be disconcerted that so many children fail to graduate from the first cycle of education and that those who do, have taken longer on average to achieve it than the system expects.

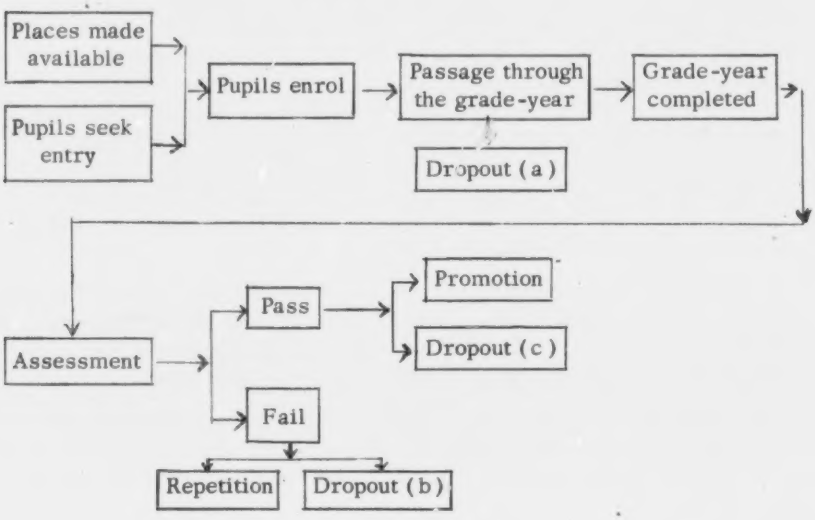
Dropout and repetition are the events which are regarded as the principal components of wastage. These terms must first be defined, and for the purpose of this article, as for most international studies, the following definitions will be adopted:

(i) A dropout is a child who leaves a cycle of education at any point before graduating from the final grade of that cycle, for such a period that he is incapable of re-entering the grade at which he left.

(ii) A repetition event is a year spent by a child in a grade which is the same as that he followed in the previous year.

It will be apparent that the term "dropout" as defined assumes that it is the intention of a nation that a child entering at the beginning of the cycle shall complete that cycle, and that the objectives of the cycle cannot be met by anything less than graduation from the cycle. In some nations it is true that literacy and numeracy may be achieved before the completion of the final grade. If this is so, then certain objectives of the cycle will be met in less than the duration of the cycle, and dropout would not have the same implications. If this is borne in mind, there should be few objectives to the subsequent argument. In the case of a single repetition, it is being assumed that a child has failed to satisfy the grade in which he was in one year and has been required to follow the same course again in the next year. Notice that it is a "repetition" that has been defined, not a repeater. A repeater may be involved in repetition more than once. From the point of view of pupil movement within and out of the system, repetition and dropout events have critical significance and have implications for the profitable use of educational resources, though they do not lend themselves to clear specification of sources of wastage, and they do not tell us what has been wasted.

If we make a simple flow chart in which dropout and repetition events are located, it becomes apparent that the term "dropout" disguises a number of different circumstances, and that both dropout and repetition are themselves outcomes of educational and social events which have pre-disposed their occurrence.


Places made available
Pupils seek entry
Pupils enrol
Passage through the grade-year
Grade-year completed
Dropout (a)
Assessment
Pass
Fail
Promotion
Dropout (c)
Repetition
Dropout (b)

From the diagram it can be seen that dropout can take place (a) before the completion of a grade-year, (b) after unsuccessful completion of a grade-year, and (c) after successful completion of that year. The location of dropout in relation to prior events is vital in the identification and control of sources of wastage. Repetition is at first sight less equivocal in that it arises only after unsuccessful completion of the grade-year; however, so does dropout of type (b). In both cases, it is educational failure which is likely to produce the event of which we complain. In both cases the year which has led to unsuccessful completion has involved wastage, in the sense that the resources employed to secure pupil learning have not achieved their objective, and that the child has experienced failure which will inevitably lower his motivation to achieve. In the case of the dropout, the loss of motivation has been catastrophic. The repeater may be involved in further wastage in that by pursuing the same course again he may be re-learning things which are unnecessary for him to re-learn, and his likelihood of failure a second time may be increased by the knowledge that he has already failed. Wastage expressed in terms of decreased readiness of the learner is at least as serious in estimations of wastage as occupying a place for a longer period than is deemed minimally necessary.

Since no system can expect that all children will be able to take equally of the same educational provision, it is apparent that the setting of standard for grade success must either be flexible or must inevitably condemn a substantial proportion of children to educational failure at the outset. Many systems do the latter in that they set standards applicable to the average performance expected of children in a particular grade and condemn almost half the children to failure. If minimal standards were set such that, say, 90% of the children could succeed, the level of achievement would be regarded as intolerably low.

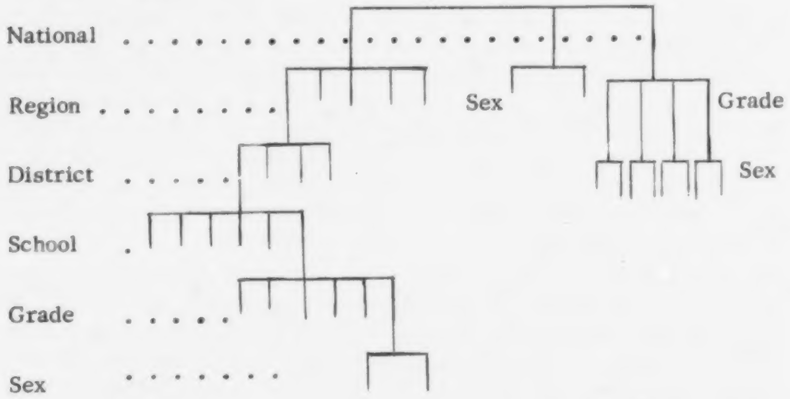
The inability of children to achieve nationally-set grade standards in the prescribed time is the major component of wastage, and linked with it is undifferentiated repetition; both in their turn may lead to dropout. Repetition inevitably leads to dropout when a system permits only so many repetitions of a grade before the pupil is rejected. The most common source of dropout, however, is not structural but social, and reflects on the holding power of the school in its total sense. Faced with failure, the child and his family may decide that the child's time might be more profitably spent at home, and in doing so they are making a judgment about the school. Failure may not be the only source of their dissatisfaction with the school, an equally common source being recognition that the school is an alien culture which carries little relevance to the day-to-day life of the parents and seems to offer nothing that would make the child more fitted ultimately to take his place in the community. While some of the factors which contribute to the social incompatibility of the school and the community are generalizable in description, they are not specifically diagnostic, since each school faces its own peculiar combination of these problems.

For most parents in developing countries, sending a child to school represents an economic risk. What is being staked is the child's labour, however small this may be in the primary school years, and the fees, travel and cost of clothing and books where the state can offer no aid to the family. The return for which the parents may hope is at least that there will be an increase in the earning power when the child has completed his education, and at best that they may have purchased for their child a ticket in an educational lottery which could lead to an established Government post. The parents may risk causing the child to lose the sympathy that he might have for the traditional values of the community; or to lose religious conviction and the contentment with the more limited life in his village or township; or to see him acquire forms of knowledge which are not understandable to the parents and even a competence in a second language, necessary as the medium of instruction, which they find not only foreign but detestable, being the language of a former colonial power.

Other ways in which the school may be found to be alien are emerging as much among developed countries as among developing countries. Looked at from the standpoint of principles of social equality, traditional institutionalized education may be seen as a system which permits a social élite to retain power through its monopoly of educational privilege. The universalization of education may be seen not to counter such an influence but as preventing revolution by producing a highly selective route through which only a few newcomers to the élite are permitted after they have been indoctrinated into the wisdom of the **status quo**. Looked at in this way, schools may be seen as the unwitting agencies of a Machiavelian state. The very conservatism of schools and their maintenance of authoritarian relationships with their pupils, the affected superiority of teachers over their less knowledgeable peers and their apparent intention of moulding their pupils in their own image reinforce this view. The de-schooling movement is a real force in many countries, and it is not yet apparent how institutionalized education will respond to the challenge of renewing itself when the rate of cultural change is beginning to be faster than the maturation of a generation.

Such are the forces which may lead to failure of an education system to achieve its objectives for the first cycle of education. General statements of this kind, however well supported they may be by research evidence, do not help a nation to organize its resources towards remedying the situation. Profitable change in education is organic rather than cataclysmic. While nation-wide structural changes such as the introduction of automatic promotion might remove repetition at a stroke, they are unlikely to have any major impact on pupil learning unless other changes accompany them. Universal recipes are of less importance than susceptibility to change. To create this susceptibility, the local character of the problems the school faces must be known and progressive adaptation introduced.

In organizing a national campaign to reduce wastage, the first requirement is to locate wastage and to identify its probable origins. Location must be both geographic and structural. In other words, we must find out in which parts of the country, in which regions, in what towns wastage is highest and in what grades it most seriously occurs. Ultimately wastage must be known at the level of the individual school and of the grade within the school. Since bias is likely to occur in the way in which the sexes respond to education, wastage should be known for boys and girls separately. The diagram below indicates the levels at which information should be known and sought within the network. At each level the information is useful for identifying forms of action provided that data is gathered in an appropriate way.



If the probable source of wastage is to be separated into two broad classes of predominantly social and predominantly educational, then more is needed than enrolment data. The 1969 Unesco survey[1] went a good deal further than most previous studies in gathering information on the numbers of children enrolled in each grade who were repeating that grade. This additional information made possible a reconstruction of the flow of the cohort through the cycle and an analysis of wastage into its dropout and repetition components. It also permitted the costing of those graduating from the cohort in terms of the total number of pupil-years involved. Two improvements on this are desirable: firstly, that the cohort should be known by registration and not merely by inference, and secondly, that the point at which children drop out in relation to the beginning and end of the grade-year should be known.

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[1] Brimer, M.A. and L. Pauli. *Wastage in education: a world problem.* Paris, Unesco, Geneva, IBE, 1971. 155 p. (Unesco. IBE. Studies and surveys on comparative education, 1)

At first sight it would seem that in order to achieve an identification of a cohort by registration, a complete, longitudinal record system would be necessary; but ingenious ways of achieving the same and without costly record systems have been devised and require no more than a slight addition to the registration of pupils at the beginning of each grade. The system is known as "cohort coding" and requires minimally that a figure representing the grade in which the child has been registered be added to his existing grade number at the time when he is registered. Thus, a child entering in Grade I for the first time would be given '1' against his name and if in the next year he entered Grade II, a '2' would be entered alongside the '1'. Thus, '1.1' would represent a child who was spending his second year in Grade I, while '1.2.3' would represent a child now in Grade III who had been promoted in successive years from Grades I and II. The year in which the information is reported allows the year in which the child entered school to be determined and, when data for all children beginning in that year are pooled, the whole history of the cohort can be represented. There are a number of possible refinements which, without adding seriously to the cost of data gathering, would improve the information available. Not least amongst these is to prefix the child's grade history number with his age or year of birth. Such a simple device is well within the scope of most school systems, and requires for its effective working no more than the transfer of the child's number to the next year's register.

Break-down in the process might occur at the point at which the collected enrolment data for each school are reported. It is preferable that the number of children who have the same code number be reported by each teacher of each class in each grade, and for boys and girls separately. Given only one data collection point in the year, the cohort coding makes possible a more exact representation of the flow of the cohort than is possible by any other device apart from an individual record system. Of course its value increases over successive years of use after its introduction until the complete flow of a single cohort can be plotted. In order to derive maximum benefit, however, two data collection points are desirable, one at the beginning of the year and the other at the end of the year. The beginning of the year point should be somewhere near the middle of the first term when registrations have been fully established and are likely to remain stable, and the second collection point should be towards the end of that year after the success or failure of the children in graduating from each grade is known. Given such information for successive years, the three categories of dropout as well as the events of repetition and promotion can be plotted. Furthermore, it becomes possible to identify patterns of school progress and to explore such interesting questions as the extent to which repetition in one year is likely to be followed by repetition or dropout at some subsequent point. When data such as these are available at national, regional and ultimately at school level, strategies of approaching the reduction of wastage can be worked out.

It cannot be stressed sufficiently that the development of a strategy for the control of wastage is dependent in the first instance on the identification and location of wastage. Only then does it become possible to establish priorities for action. Like any other educational improvement, the reduction of wastage demands in the first instance the input of greater resources than have been used so far. Ultimately the determination of what specific action to take in relation to a particular school is a matter for the individual diagnosis of that school and community's problem. It has already been said that there are few forms of action that can be taken legally or structurally that are likely to produce positive results without further support. For example, a country may decide that it is desirable to reduce dropout by insisting that all children who register in a grade should complete that grade. Even if forms of enforcement are introduced, the device will only work provided that parents are willing to take the risk for a year, or provided that schools are willing to entertain the possibility of having recalcitrant pupils. The effect of any such legal change is ultimately felt at the level of the school and its implications must be anticipated there. Another country may decide that the only way to overcome its problems of repetition is to introduce automatic promotion. Unless at the same time there are changes in the system of setting standards and teaching relating to individual differences, the result will be the setting of work which is quite beyond the capabilities of a large number of children and predictably a marked increase in dropout. There are of course considerable logistic problems attendant on such an act which must be carefully worked out before action is taken. While the number of years spent on average by a pupil in the cycle would decrease and therefore the capacity of the system would be increased, there might be a consequent fall in dropout. This may serve to take up the space created by the elimination of repetition. It is also likely that with an increase in the range of individual difference in the later grades, the numbers of children in each grade would enforce an alteration in the pupil/teacher ratio. Careful preparation for acts to control wastage is vital.

The single standard that is employed in so many countries for each grade is a serious constraint on the operation of an education system in that it takes into account only those children who are capable of meeting it. It relegates those who fail to reach the standard to a repetition of grades until the time is reached when they either drop out or attain the grade standard. At the very least this is wasteful in that all children who fail to reach the standard by whatever degree are treated in the same fashion. It should clearly be preferable if differential degrees of achievement within a grade were known and that these were related to target achievement. A system that would make this possible would have profound implications for curriculum reform at the same time. In the same way that operational objectives for each end of grade may be set, so intermediate objectives may be set and articulated. Intermediate objectives can be related to proportions of the school population which it is intended shall achieve them. The diagram below shows a single achievement scale on which target proportions of children in each grade who will achieve them have been marked. On the same diagram the actual proportions of children achieving these levels at the end of a grade year have been marked. From such a diagram it is possible to determine the extent to which targets are not being met at each of the successive levels of intermediate objectives. The way in which this device can be used has been described in a paper published by the Unesco Office of Statistics.[1]

Cumulative target proportions		.90	.80	.70	.60	.50	.40	.30	.20	.10	
Achievement scale	0	7	15	20	35	43	58	67	79	85	100
Obtained cumulative proportions		.85	.75	.70	.50	.35	.30	.20	.15	.05	
Difference		+5	+5	0	+10	+15	+10	+10	+5	+5	---%

So far we have only discussed the monitoring of the educational system to reveal major characteristics of wastage and to locate wastage at its most critical points of occurrence. Any one who has read Wastage in Education: A World Problem[2] will be aware that the causes of wastage that have been identified indict practically every aspect of the educational and social enterprise. Since no single cause can be universally specified as the major element in wastage, it is not possible to advance unequivocal ways to control wastage. It is helpful to review those things that we do know about the reduction of wastage. Firstly, wastage is most likely to occur in those situations where educational resources are scarce. Secondly, wastage is more likely to occur where systems are rigid in their operation than when they are flexible. Thirdly, wastage is lower where the aspirations of the community and those of the school coincide. Fourthly, educational wastage tends to follow idiosyncratic patterns related to the particular school and its catchment area.

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[1] Brimer, M.A. *The Quantification of school events related to educational wastage in further studies on the evaluation of internal efficiency of educational system : a symposium.* Paris, Unesco, 1972. (Unesco. Current surveys and research in statistics, CSR-E-3)

[2] Brimer, M.A. and L. Pauli. *loc. cit.*

The first of these observations would seem at first sight to suggest that there is little hope that those countries with scarce resource will make substantial inroads into their wastage problem. However, reconsideration might suggest that there is inevitably a conflict between aspirations towards increasing the numbers of children who enter school and aspirations to establish an effective and efficient system of primary education. It may be preferable for some countries to hold back further expansion of numbers of children entering primary education in favour of a planned reduction in wastage. The second observation suggests that greater flexibility might be introduced into educational systems where rigidities are at present critical in contributing to wastage. Amongst such actions would be the establishment of differential levels of grade achievement which would permit progressive increase in the proportion of children passing grades as teaching in the following grades became progressively more capable of handling individual problems. A further and most important action suggested by this observation would be to increase the authority of individual schools to adjust to local problems. For example in certain rural areas it may be a seasonal practice for parents to withdraw children from school during harvest or sowing times. It would be helpful if schools had the freedom to adjust holidays to coincide with them. Likewise schools should be free to adjust their curriculum to be more in keeping with the characteristic aspirations of the community in which they were vested, as a step towards creating conditions which the third observation suggests.

It is not sufficient for the school to plan its own practices so that it does not interfere with community activities. It is necessary that the community should regard the school as a positive force in its own life and as serving aspirations which can be realistically perceived. To this end, schools should be encouraged to open their doors to parents, both when school is in session and when it is not, to bring parents into discussions about the curriculum and to express their points of view about its relevance.

Much educational research has shown that teacher attitude and teaching style is closely related with pupil achievement. No one has successfully shown how teaching attitude may be changed. Teachers respond to the pressures of the situation in which they find themselves, and as long as the school is a closed system serving its own end, these are the pressures to which teachers will respond. Since the success of education is ultimately dependent on its acceptability to the community, it is important that teachers should be compelled to respond to community pressures, no matter how irksome they find them. At the same time it is possible that the community will learn more of what the school is doing and find virtues in it that had not been previously recognized. The school can do a great deal as a social agency but only within the community and not as a supercilious dispenser of wisdom.

The fourth observation suggests that the best means of tackling the problems of wastage at the level of the school are through self-help and self-analysis, aided by expert help in coping with and recognizing its problems. In this connexion it would be preferable if Ministries of Education could set up task forces drawn from the teaching force in each region and specially trained to diagnose the problems within that region. Such task forces would be armed with the information derived from the national studies of wastage, and would begin with the schools where wastage was high and would set out to examine the multitude of problems as a case study. All aspects of the school and of the school's relationship with the community would be brought into question, but unlike the usual inspectorial function, it would seek to exemplify the forms of change that were necessary and to introduce the teachers in the school to the working of the changed procedure. It would be helpful if such task forces could call upon some extra resource which would be placed at the school's disposal and that they should be in a position to re-visit the school after a period.

In the first phase the job of a task force would be very much like that of management consultants, in that it would seek to determine quickly what appeared to be the major source of disadvantage within the school. It would spend not less than two weeks in any one school and would choose schools not only because of the severity of the problem but also because of the likelihood that the effect of a change in that school would transfer to neighbouring schools. Schools would be linked in a self-help network with the responsibility of transmitting to each other the benefits of their operations. By this means it is likely that the isolation of schools would be reduced and that innovations that were workable would be transmitted rather than recommendations which were unrealizable. Of course such task forces could not be created overnight, nor could they be made to serve the whole of a country in one year. It is likely that after a period of experimental operation they would be extended. Their creation would involve extra expenditure on education by the country, aod for this reason the operation of task forces must be seen in terms of national priorities in exactly the same way as any other major educational change.

Nevertheless the likelihood of benefit for the cost incurred is greater than in the case of universal distribution of very small resources.

This article has attempted in a short space to summarize the problems surrounding the identification of wastage and its control. Inevitably it would not be specific in suggesting the particular actions that any one country should adopt, since these actions must be closely related to the circumstances which are prevailing. Moreover, it is important that countries seeking to control wastage should not depend on recipes adopted in other parts of the world where conditions are essentially different. It is all too easy to seek Unesco support for expert teams to come and make specific recommendations about the way in which the education system might change, but inevitably such experts come out with presuppositions as to the recipes which ought to be adopted and spend a long time accustoming themselves to the conditions that they find and gaining experience of what the countries' problems really are. Answers are best sought in terms that a country will adopt for itself once it has been assured that the answers to its problems do not lie in finding a panacea. Educational wastage is only a negative way of conceptualizing the problem of educational effectiveness. Efficiency is only possible after effectiveness has been realized. It is vital that those who are responsible for education should recognize that the most serious loss in educational wastage is human resource and should not take the view that the educational process is like a production system which can be set to turn out its products with greater or less expenditure. No saving in national expenditure is likely to be achieved by the control of educational wastage. The best that can be hoped for is that the product will be better fitted to citizenship and to a full life within the community and that this will be possible for more people.

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DEVELOPMENT OF SUITABLE CURRICULA FOR ELEMENTARY EDUCATION: INPUTS FROM AN ANALYSIS OF EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITIES

by D.A. Perera

The major factors that are generally taken into consideration in developing curricula are the characteristics of the various areas of knowledge and their mode of inquiry, the characteristics of the learners and the resources - human, material, and time - needed to organize the teaching-learning situations. Some attention is paid to socio-economic considerations, but this is mainly for ascertaining whether the programme is economically feasible and whether the manpower needs of the country are met. This article reports that a consideration of employment opportunities has made a significant difference to the design of the terminal years of compulsory education in Sri Lanka, even though there is no attempt to channel pupils into different vocations. It suggests that such considerations are essential for curriculum workers in developing countries of the Asian region.

The duration and age range of elementary education vary from country to country, but some common features can be discerned. One is that during the elementary stage there is no deliberate attempt to differentiate the children according to their future vocational opportunities or choice of further and secondary education. The elementary curriculum is generally a common curriculum for all children: the same range of activities and experiences is available to each child so that no one is inhibited in his natural growth by the lack of opportunities to explore and be active. Within the range provided, different children may of course make different choices and proceed at different rates, but such differentiation is not externally imposed; it does not arise from probabilistic decisions as to what children may do in the future, but arises naturally from the fact that children are different from each other, here and now. Hence elementary education should be characterized by the availability, to all children within the stage, of a common range of experiences they are free to explore.

Another characteristic of elementary education is that the selection criteria for admission enable every normal human child to enter the stage. It is unfortunately true that in many countries of Asia many children are prevented from doing so on account of socio-economic factors: this restriction is not due to an education philosophy, but to the scarcity of resources. All those who enter an elementary education stage should complete it, but this unfortunately is not everywhere possible.

This article will attempt to describe the relevancy of considering employment opportunities in the design of curricula for elementary education, using as a background recent attempts in this field in Sri Lanka. For the purposes of this article, the "elementary stage" in Sri Lanka will be considered to be Grades I to IX. The nomenclature as actually used in Sri Lanka is different: Grades I to V are called the elementary stage, and Grades VI to IX are called the junior secondary stage. But since the range Grade I to Grade IX as designed conforms to the conditions stated earlier, it will, for the purpose of this article, be referred to as an elementary stage.

I. Outline of major educational changes being effected in Sri Lanka

A. An analysis of some existing deficiencies, indicating possible guidelines for their reduction

The major criticism of the local education system has been that its output does not have the knowledge, skills and attitudes that the country's development requires. The following quotations from the Government's Five-Year Plan bear this out:

> "The basic shortcoming of the country's educational system is that the academic type curricula are framed to cater to the needs of that small minority of the output of the educational system who, having reached the G.C.E. 'O' Level, compete for the very small number of jobs available as doctors, engineers, administrators or teachers. Of the others, a small number obtain employment in the clerical, technical and service occupations, while the rest begin the interminable wait for the white-collar jobs that are not there. Judging from results, it is no exaggeration to say that the social returns to educational investments have been negligible, if not negative."[1]

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[1] Sri Lanka. Ministry of Planning and Employment. *The Five-Year Plan 1972-1976.* /Colombo/ 1971. p. 110.

Table 1. Occupational structure of the total labour force, 1963, 1968 and 1969-70 (percentages) (cont'd)

Occupational group	1963	1968	1969-70
Clerical workers	3.7	3.0	3.5
Sales workers	6.6	6.6	7.8
Workers in agriculture, etc.	51.6	54.1	50.2
Miners, etc.	0.2	0.3	0.3
Workers in transport and communications	3.2	3.4	4.1
Craftsmen, production process workers and labourers	19.8	20.8	19.7
Service, sport and recreation workers	8.8	6.5	7.8
Total:	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total labour force (thousands)	3 200	3 232	3 583

Source: *Matching employment opportunities and expectations: A programme of action for Ceylon - technical papers.* I.L.O. Geneva, 1971. Table 7, p. 168.

The table above does not of course indicate what the country needs in the future, but only indicates what it obtains now. However, policy statements by the Government and other data imply that the distribution indicated in the table is not likely to change significantly in the near future. Commenting on the possible expansion of white-collar jobs, the Government's Five-Year Plan states that it "... can no longer be supported by the country's productive sectors."[1] The strategy is to use all available resources to increase production, the investment policy being geared to create employment. Where feasible, labour-intensive techniques are to be preferred. Hence the increased employment which the Government expects to achieve over the Plan period would tend to increase the proportion of "workers" and "craftsmen" in the sense of the table given above. According to that table, the proportion of "workers in agriculture" and "craftsmen, production process workers and labourers" is almost 70% for 1969-70. As was pointed out above, this is certainly not likely to decrease. Hence it is safe to conclude that a person who leaves the education system and seeks employment is far more likely to end up as a worker in agriculture or as a craftsman than as a professional or administrative or clerical employee. Surely a curriculum designer has to take note of this fact if premise (vi) above is granted. Where economic development is concerned, this is not the only fact that he has to consider; the following excerpts from the Government's Five-Year Plan indicate other relevant aspects:

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[1] Ibid. p. 5.

> "On the other hand, there can be no significant economic development in Ceylon unless there is an immediate change in the framework of social relations ... In recent years, the younger generation has been gradually alienated from society. This has crucial consequences for social stability and economic development, particularly as over 50% of the population are below twenty-one. While the more privileged amongst them are striving to imitate the customs and habits of the affluent world, the underprivileged youths find that society is unable to offer them a meaningful role ... Today, the conspicuous consumption of a highly privileged class is tending to distort the values of job-seekers in a manner which has far-reaching implications. For it has to be recognized that the levels of living of this class can no longer be the model on which the aspirations of the younger generation can be based. For even with a very high rate of economic growth the economy will not in the foreseeable future be able to underpin consumption on this scale."[1]

The establishment of proper social relations, then, should become a major objective of the education system. While this is not the sole responsibility of the formal education system, there is no doubt that it has a significant share either in maintaining the existing social relations or creating new ones. A 'meaningful role' for the school leavers, a "feasible model" on which they can base their aspirations, these are what the formal education system has to create. There cannot be any doubt that the feasible job model is not a neatly dressed man seated at a desk in a comfortable office, but a man with a mammoty on his shoulder out in the blazing sun or a worker with dirty overalls and grimy hands. Considerations such as these indicate that curriculum designers, at least in Sri Lanka, have to explore areas other than the traditional fields of subject matter, methodology, psychology, etc. Not that they are unimportant, but they alone are not enough. For the purposes of this article it can be assumed - and available data supports this assumption - that premises (iii), (iv) and (v) listed above are valid.

The premises that curricula are meant for a small minority and that they are academic need to be examined, not because they are by and large invalid, but because the system has certain characteristics which make it very difficult to produce curricula of which such assertions cannot be made. The following comment highlights these characteristics :

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[1] Ibid. p. 4.

> ".... the passing of the examination assumes in the classroom such overwhelming importance as the sole raison d'être of schooling.... The school's function to educate becomes superseded by the demand that it should qualify. One consequence of this is that the knowledge and skills acquired by the majority who fail the tests (which are designed to prepare the minority who gain access to further education) are inappropriate to their needs and those of the nation. Given also the rigidity of the centralized examination system, they re often inappropriate even for those who proceed." [1]

Since the number of places in further education is less than the demand, the flow of pupils has to be restricted at certain points. In the present system, which is now being replaced, the points are at the end of Grade X and Grade XII. The criterion used to select this minority of pupils is their academic achievement in various subjects; interest and aptitude are rarely taken into consideration. Hence there is a very high premium on academic achievement. This in itself is not undesirable, but the techniques of ascertaining the level of academic achievement on a national scale (involving at Grade X at least 300,000 candidates) reduces its quality very greatly. The only manageable instruments on this scale are written tests. Although much work has been done on improving written tests (e.g. using objective-type and structured essay test items, using taxonomies of educational objectives, using items of known difficulty level and discrimination), they have certain disadvantages when used as the sole instruments for determining academic achievement. One disadvantage is that a whole class of objectives, namely the psychomotor, is almost totally ignored. At least in the Sri Lanka situations, the affective domain is hardly, if ever, represented: the main emphasis is on objectives in the cognitive domain. But since the major purpose of the tests turns out in actual practice to be selection, it is possible for teachers to plan their teaching so as to ignore certain objectives and/or certain content areas. For what matters is not whether pupils have usable knowledge, but whether they get through the examination. Hence so long as the system uses academic achievement to restrict pupil

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1. Inter-agency team organized by the International Labour Organization. *Matching employment opportunities and expectations, a programme of action for Ceylon.* Geneva, ILO, 1970. p. 134, 135.

flows and the achievement is measured solely by written tests on a national scale, curricula would tend to be "academic and meant for a minority." They are so not by design, but by actual usage.

B. Some relevant aspects of the emerging education system which indicate how deficiencies can be reduced

The principal features of the emerging system (in relation to the topic this article deals with) can be summarized as follows:

1. A compulsory nine-year general education programme extending from Grade I to Grade IX, with a common curriculum for all pupils. The nine years will comprise a five-year primary education stage followed by a four-year junior secondary stage. This replaces the earlier five-year primary education stage which was followed by a 3 + 2 stage ending up at Grade X. The curriculum at the 3 + 2 stage varied with the locality and type of school. For example, only a limited number of schools offered instruction in science, mathematics, commerce at the Grade IX and Grade X level.

2. Re-design of the courses in third level institutes so that they can take in candidates through avenues other than the traditional ones. The traditional avenue to enter a first degree course at a university is through the secondary school. One has to get through two hurdles, one at the end of Grade X, the other at the end of Grade XII. In future, it is expected that while this avenue will remain open, fresh ones will be opened up. In particular it is expected that people in employment will be able to enter the universities. Candidates completing a course at a polytechnic may proceed to the university. Another avenue for those completing the nine-year compulsory stage may be through trade schools or employment or higher technical institutes. The purpose of designing for multiple entry points is twofold: first, these third level institutes can respond to local needs, particularly in relation to economic development, far more adequately and far more promptly than has hitherto been the case; the second objective is to de-emphasize the significance of the national examinations at the end of Grade IX and Grade XI (in the new system) as instruments of selection for further education. As pointed out in the preceding section, this can facilitate curricula being implemented in a more valid way.

3. A two-year stage (which is free but not compulsory) following the nine-year compulsory stage which ensures entry to third level institutes from non-academic streams. According to current practice, pupils opting for (or more correctly, virtually forced to take) courses in woodwork, metal work, have no courses

available for them at the next higher level from which candidates are selected for the university. Even the entrance requirements for courses at the technical institutes demand passes at a certain level in 'academic' subjects as mathematics, physics. The purpose of this change is to reduce the significance of academic achievement as a pre-requisite for further studies. The curricula at this stage, for the academic stream as well, are to be redesigned, taking into consideration the country's occupational profile.

II. Inputs from an analysis of employment opportunities

A. Employment opportunities as a determinant of educational goals

1. Supplementing goals in science. The need for local curriculum designers to study the employment opportunities was dealt with earlier. This section will consider more precisely what are the possible inputs of such a study into the curriculum development activity. At the elementary stage, there will be no classification of pupils according to what they are expected to do in the future. More particularly there is no deliberate attempt to channel the elementary stage output into particular vocational areas. In the local situation, categorical statements to this effect have been made. What then are the possible contributions to elementary education from an analysis of employment opportunities?

In the preceding section it was brought out that existing curricula are academic, do not relate to the needs of the country, generate attitudes regarding work which are inimical to the economic development of the country, and create frustration amongst the youths who constitute a sizeable proportion of the country's population. These deficiencies call for a re-consideration of the global goals for elementary education. If curricula are academic, one possible way to make them less so is to relate them more closely to the pupil's environment. This has been recognized for a very long time. He is a rare curriculum worker, if he is at all one, who would not claim to do precisely this. Science, social studies, mathematics are three important areas of the curriculum in which this could be achieved effectively. The following is an excerpt from the statement of the global goals of the local four-year course in science, which indicates that this need has been recognized:

"Understand fundamental science concepts sufficiently to:

(a) accept scientific explanations of common natural phenomena;

(b) comprehend general scientific advice in relation to such areas as personal health, agricultural practices, public health, etc. ;

(c) comprehend references to scientific matters in mass media ;

(d) appreciate the need to conserve national resources ;

(e) apply them (where simple applications are possible) to the production processes of vocations practised in the community." [1]

It will be observed that specific reference is made to vocations practised in the community. Even where no specific reference has been made, content relevant to vocations may be dealt with. It is one thing to state the goals and quite another to translate them into practice. It is too early to evaluate the extent to which this goal has been achieved, but it may be useful to indicate the guidance given to teachers. A good example is the first unit on simple machines due to be taught in the first term of Grade VII. A preliminary activity in which the teacher has been advised to engage with the pupils is to make a survey of the community with respect to the use of machines. The survey may be nothing more than a trip to the neighbourhood, watching a farmer or a blacksmith at work. On this preliminary visit pupils simply note the variety of machines that are used, by whom they are used, and for what purposes. They also note what has to be "put in" to get the machines to do the work. 'Inputs' and 'Outputs' are not expected to be described in a technical language : everyday language will be used and the description may be in semi-quantitative terms. For example, pupils may ask a tractor driver how much petrol has to be put in per day and how many acres he can plough per day. Where a farmer uses a mammoty, the input cannot be described as precisely.

The main objective of such an exercise is to make the curriculum less academic. From a science teaching point of view, the activity is also useful. Pupils may obtain a preliminary idea that we cannot get something for nothing: the tractor will not work without petrol, the mammoty will not go up and down on its own, the farmer has to eat. Pupils can also discuss why machines are used : they will appreciate that some machines enable work to be done more quickly, and that others enable work to be done which a man alone cannot do. Subsequent work in the classroom is designed to enable pupils to explore these ideas further. If this is to be done effectively, the science

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1. Sri Lanka. Ministry of Education. *Scheme of work in science, 6th Grade, Term 1.* /Colombo/ 1972. p. 15.

teacher can no longer take refuge in a special science room and have a textbook as his sole source of information. He will have to be concerned with the machines that are used predominantly in the community. He is bound to discover that there are many questions he cannot answer himself. Perhaps with the help of his pupils he may answer some. But while this kind of attempt can make science, mathematics, social studies, etc. more relevant and more interesting to the pupils, it is not adequate to meet the deficiencies noted earlier.

2. New content areas. Therefore, in designing the curriculum for the new junior secondary school, which constitutes the last four years of the nine-year compulsory stage, the Ministry of Education has decided to include an altogether new area called "pre-vocational studies", the major goals of which are to impart to children:

(a) An ability to execute selected manual skills related to vocations with an appropriate degree of proficiency. It is considered important that pupils should acquire some meaningful manual skills. They may not acquire the skills to a professional degree where a consistently high level of performance is routine, and may have to perform consciously many tasks that a master craftsman is hardly aware of performing. But depending on the particular skill, such a level of performance may be the most appropriate for pupils. Teachers in consultation with parents and community leaders will have to decide the skills and the level of performance appropriate to the pupils in their charge.

(b) An understanding of the appropriate aspects of selected vocations. A vocation must not be treated as only a set of manual skills to be acquired: either something of value is produced or some useful service is rendered, but in both cases there is something to be marketed. If something is produced, then there is some raw material being used and there is a process of production. People engaged in various vocations will have problems not only of selling but also of buying. They should not only execute the production process, but should also be on the alert to improve it. Hence there are many aspects from which a vocation can be studied. What aspects are appropriate and to what depth each one should be studied are matters for teachers to decide. But it is expected that pre-vocational studies will not be narrowly confined to the acquisition of manual skills.

(c) A knowledge of major vocations practised in the community. A major objective of the pre-vocational studies is to establish closer and more fruitful relations between the pupils who leave school and the communities from which they come. The basis for this should be a knowledge of the community and its resources. Some parts of this knowledge would be acquired through other courses of study such as social studies and science, and pre-vocational studies should place the emphasis on information about the vocations. It is not the intention that for each vocation, only those aspects which would tend to attract pupils to it should be presented: the presentation must be honest, in order not to deceive the rising generation, but to make them better informed and more skillful. If there is no market for the output from a particular vocation, the pupils must be made aware of this; if they can be made to understand fully the reasons for such a state of affairs, an attempt should be made to develop the understanding fully, otherwise a partial understanding appropriate to their level will suffice. With better knowledge, pupils will be better equipped to make more rational decisions about their future.

(d) An awareness that knowledge gained in other studies such as mathematics and science can be applied in studying about vocations. It is important that pupils regard school learning as meaningful. This meaningfulness can arise in many ways. One way is through showing the relevance of school learning to such important aspects of life as vocations practised in the community. In a locality where basket weaving is done, the relevance of school mathematics can be supported by studying the designs on the baskets, which can lead to the creation of new designs by pupils. The study of the raw material used in weaving gives many instances of the use of science learnt in school. Such applications are likely to convince the pupils that what they are asked to learn in the science class has other uses besides answering the questions in the end-of-term test.

(e) A feeling of confidence and pride in their ability to participate in the production of marketable goods or services. To many pupils in the junior secondary school, the course of studies they are completing would be their only formal schooling. Others who continue would have further opportunities for development within the formal school system. For both groups it is essential not only to acquire some selected manual skills as stated above, but also to acquire a feeling of confidence and pride in these skills. Then it can be expected that pupils leaving the system, being confident that they may engage in many different activities for their progress, are more likely to take suitable steps to engage in one or more of them. For those who continue in the system, the feeling of confidence and pride they have acquired would lead them to value certain vocations and develop suitable attitudes towards those who practise them.[1]

What is new with these goals is their relation to specific vocations practised in the community of which the school is a part. Cultivation of manual skills is nothing new as a goal of school instruction; what is new is that the manual skills that are to be selected for development in the school are a part of the repertoire of manual skills associated with a specific vocation. What the specific skills are has to be decided by the teachers in each school under the guidance of the headmaster and in consultation with parents. In selecting the skills, schools have been advised to consider (a) the physical maturity of the pupils; (b) the availability of resources for developing the skills; and (c) the views of parents.

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[1] Sri Lanka. Ministry of Education. *Pre-vocational Studies* [Colombo] 1972. p. 8, 9.

For many reasons, it was necessary to draw attention to the need to consult parents. In the preliminary discussions, the head of a school pointed out that parents might object to particular manual skills being taught in the school, because the vocation was practised by a particular group of supposedly low social status. In such situations schools were advised not to go against parental wishes. The need to respect the wishes of parents was not entirely due to academic or philosophical reasons. Part of the resources, perhaps the larger share, has to be supplied by the community of which the parents are a substantial majority. The resources may include parental expertise, material and equipment. If curricula are to be less academic, if attitudes are to be changed, it is vital that the community be positively involved or at least sympathetic to what the school is attempting to do. None of these can be obtained by antagonizing the parents at the outset. It is expected however that parental attitudes will change in the course of time, and there have already been instances where initial parental opposition has been overcome.

If a school is to plan a course of work to achieve the objectives listed above, there is no doubt that it has to make a serious study of the selected vocation and to consider (with respect to the first goal, for example); questions such as: what are the manual skills of the vocation that is the basis of the school study? Of these manual skills, what are those that can be developed in children of Grades VI to IX, and what are the ones appropriate for Grade VI, Grade VII, etc.? What is the level of proficiency expected in each grade? How long would it take to develop each skill? [1]

Apart from their direct use in the preparation of school curricula, studies of this type also have an important indirect use - which in the long run may perhaps be the more valuable - viz. to represent the active involvement of the school in the life of the community. In very many parts of the country, the school staff comprises the more educated and the more enlightened members of the community. Their interest

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1. Sri Lanka. Ministry of Education. *Evaluation of pre-vocational studies (at school level)* [Colombo] 1972.

in such an important aspect of the community as the vocations practised in it cannot but be beneficial. This also is not a one-way process: the school staff will have to learn many things from the experts in the community, and their pupils will come to realize that in certain things valued by the school, their fathers or brothers or other elders are more expert than their teachers. This should go a long way towards changing the current value system which regards very highly book learning divorced from practical skills. If the larger fraction of the available employment opportunities is in the manual labour category (and it is in that category), then a change in the values on the above lines is a dire necessity. It is of course recognized that a change in the wage structure would lend considerable support to such a change.

B. Some anecdotal records indicative of the potential of the pre-vocational studies

The preceding comments would have indicated the many possible inputs into the school curriculum from an analysis of employment opportunities. The Sri Lanka programme has not been operated for a sufficiently long time (it was launched only in January, 1972) for an adequate evaluation to be possible. But anecdotal records reaching the Ministry indicate its high potential.

1. Under the agricultural programmes of the Government which started many years back, what came to be called 'colonies' were set up. Forest land was re-claimed where new families were settled with assistance from the Government. The particular school concerned had been built for such a colony; it had good relations with the community and was used as a venue for various meetings of the cultivators. It was suggested to the headmaster that the school had a positive role to play with respect to the development of the colony. Were the people better off now than when the colony started? Had all the land been cultivated? What were the major problems the colony faced? A questionnaire was drafted by the headmaster with the help of other government officers concerned with the welfare of the colony. Fifty units were selected and fifty pupils from the families who owned these units were asked to collect the information. Among the interesting findings were data showing variation in the yield per acre of coconut. The headmaster had very plausible hypotheses to account for this. It is noteworthy that some parents refused to give the information asked for. It has been suggested that schools in predominantly agricultural areas should serve as agricultural record keepers for the community.

2. A school in a banana-growing area selected banana cultivation as one of the studies under this programme. The headmaster reported that initially they had to get the advice of the parents on how to select the seedlings and how to plant them. Another study the school was going to undertake was to investigate the effectiveness of different types

of fertilizers that were commercially available. Subsequently the headmaster reported that a few of the cultivators had started contacting the school regarding fertilizers.

3. A school which started on clay-brick making used as its principal instructor the village expert. Pupils now treat him with the same respect that they have for their regular teachers. This is particularly encouraging because it was not only the Grade VI children who were engaged in the activity, but the children in the higher grades as well, including those in Grade XII. It has been suggested that the school should investigate problems such as the following: For how long may the community use the existing (known) clay deposits? Are the local clay bricks being pushed out of the market by factory-make bricks, cement bricks? What is the average income from brick making? Can other articles be made out of the clay?

In an area where producing coconut fibre and making articles out of fibre are the main occupations, the schools have started on many investigations. A principal one is to find out whether the period taken to get the fibre from the coconut husk can be shortened. (The fact that this was possible was communicated to the teachers who were preparing the curriculum materials). The current local practice takes 6 to 8 months. Another problem is being investigated: is the tender husk more suitable for extracting fibre of good quality than the mature husk? The local practice uses both fresh water and brackish water for soaking the husks; is one superior to the other? Are natural local pigments suitable for dyeing fibre? These and a host of other questions are engaging the attention of the schools in this area. The participation of pupils in this type of activity must in the long run create a community which is far better informed about the vocation than now.

In summary, the Sri Lanka programme indicates that the single biggest contribution to curriculum development from an analysis of employment opportunities could be a re-examination and a re-drafting of educational goals.

This contribution cannot be over-emphasized, particularly in the developing countries. Hitherto the major contribution to educational goals has been from a philosophical standpoint somewhat divorced from the realities of living. To us of the Third World, the tragic consequence of this could be that considerable national resources are spent on pursuing a mirage. Archambault, referring to the contribution of such giants as Plato, Aristotle, Comenius, Herbart, Dewey, says:

> "..... However, many of these authors tended to deal with educational problems in terms of an 'ideal situation', ... if not a Utopia. This ideal situation usually seems to differ

> drastically from that of the concrete present. This may be due to one or more of several different factors : the ideal model may be philosophically unacceptable because of the metaphysical, epistemological, or ethical assumptions on which it is based; it may be psychologically unsound because of its misinformed or inadequate notions of learning, individual differences, or human development; it may be sociologically unacceptable to adherents of democratic social organization because of its views on elitism or social caste and class". [1]

One other factor which may be added to the three stated by Archambault is that the ideal may be economically unacceptable because it implies the availability of resources which a system may not be able to command. This is particularly true of the developing countries of the Asian region.

C. Other inputs

Some other inputs into curriculum development have been indicated above, but they really arise in the attempt to pursue the new goals. They may be briefly enumerated as follows :

1. Provision of more relevant, more interesting and more useful activities for pupils to engage themselves in. Apart from the examples given earlier, activities such as the following have been suggested. A school that had started on using the local cane to make baskets, etc., found that the local craftsmen, having exhausted the supply near to their homes, were going further and further into the jungles around. They also discovered that extracting a single mature cane destroyed about ten tender plants. Nobody in the area had any idea as to how many years were required to produce a mature plant : it was suggested that the school should try to cultivate the plant. Another inquiry was the rate at which the local resources were being exploited : it was suggested that the school should attempt to get some ideas of the existing resources, and the pupils were to consult government officers in the forest and agriculture departments.

2. Integration of traditional subject matter areas of the curriculum. Pupils can be provided with many situations in which it is necessary for them to apply the knowledge, skills and attitudes they have acquired in other fields to solve problems that are relevant to them, and very likely of interest to them. Being very often concrete

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[1] Archambault, Reginald D. ed. *Philosophical analysis and education*. London, Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1965. p. 2, 3.

situations, they present fewer methodological problems. Some examples have already been cited. One other good instance is the quality testing of local products. The country now has its own bureau of standards, and there are local standards relating, for example, to coir fibre and clay brick. Many tests are simple enough or can be adapted in a valid way for school use: measurement of the diameter and length of a sample of coir fibre, and measurement of the proportion of its dry weight to water absorbed by a brick, present valid applications of science and mathematics.

3. Provision of opportunities for creative work. In studies which involve the production of certain articles by pupils, the possibility of doing something new is always present, but it requires of course an understanding teacher to stimulate the pupils. As the revised mathematics syllabus deals specifically with symmetry and designs, it has been suggested that where weaving or textile printing is done, pupils should be encouraged to produce their own designs. Making traditional masks is another indigenous craft; the fibre from a local plant is traditionally used to make twine, but there was a pupil who had made a belt for himself. True enough it was not a polished article, but it was with considerable pride that its maker displayed it.

4. Provision of opportunities for a greater number of pupils to have more reinforcing experiences in school. The traditional school curriculum gives recognition mainly to two types of pupil performance: in the academic field and in the sports field. But then the laurel wreath cannot be worn by a crowd; the traditional curriculum has rewards only for a small minority, generally the more academically talented. The new studies enable this to be changed, not only by making it possible to reward a bigger number of pupils, but also by changing the basis of the rewarding, which need no longer be competition between them. Each one can be commended for this effort with great sincerity; each one can improve against his own performance; each one can develop a sense of his own worth.

D. The early years of the elementary stage

This article would not be complete without a consideration, however meagre, of the inputs into the curriculum of the earlier stage of elementary education. Considering the development stage of the pupils, it is not desirable to expect them to cultivate selected skills related to specific vocations. In some instances this may however be possible: where agriculture is concerned, children of this age-group do assist their parents in the field. Some systematic studies will have to be made before any definite decisions are made as to what the school can and should do. Some possible objectives are listed below:

(a) Pupils should be aware of the major vocations practised in the community;

(b) Pupils should be aware of the usefulness of the vocations to the community;

(c) Pupils should acquire the attitude of supporting the community production programmes by participating in them in some measure, however small.

III. Some of the major difficulties encountered so far

A. In-service education of field supervisory staff, headmasters and teachers

In implementing any curricular changes, the most critical person is the teacher. When a programme is new but appears to resemble an on-going programme, the problem is doubly difficult. Making various kinds of articles in school such as may be done in weaving, woodwork, pottery, etc., has been going on in local schools for at least three decades. They may have achieved those goals of the new programme related to the manual skills, but they were certainly not designed to achieve the others. Therefore, a very intensive in-service education programme was called for. This has so far not been possible, mainly on account of the shortage of trained personnel who could interpret the new programme adequately to the very large number of teachers and headmasters involved. However, over 80% of the field supervisory staff have received at least two days of in-service education on the new programme.

B. Preparation of curriculum materials

Owing to the local basis of the programme, schools have been asked to prepare their own curriculum material. General guidelines and specimen material have been made available. While some schools have produced very good material, others have not yet succeeded to do so. It has been suggested that schools in the same locality who have selected similar if not the same vocations should get together for this exercise. Field officers have been briefed to take the leadership in establishing such committees, which have now started functioning in many areas of the country.

C. Material resources for the new programmes

The Ministry has indicated to the schools that while some initial help may be given they should start on programmes they can sustain with their own resources. Considering that the Government's expenditure on education is about one-fifth of its annual budget, this was a reasonable decision to take. However, it is expected that with the assistance of various aid agencies, schools will be supplied with certain minimum tools. The criticism has been made that the schools which can count on the help of the richer parents will be able to provide better facilities for their children, and hence that the existing disparities will become wider. This certainly can occur. But the quality of the new programmes does not depend so much on the quantity of material resources available as on their imaginative use : the present indications are that it is the bigger schools with better facilities which are not teaching the new programme adequately.

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TRAINING OF PERSONNEL FOR INSTRUCTION AT THE FIRST LEVEL OF EDUCATION IN RURAL SOCIETIES

by Edward A. Pires

The author makes a plea for a special type of preparation of educational personnel working in the rural areas because the responsibilities of such personnel are different in some ways from those of their urban counterparts.

He stresses the need to provide specialized programmes not only for rural school teachers but also for such personnel as curriculum makers, school supervisors and teacher educators concerned with the education of rural children, which education he affirms should be of the highest possible quality.

He then proceeds to consider briefly the objectives of teacher education for rural school teachers before offering suggestions for a reorganization of the curriculum for such teachers which he believes should be integrated as much as possible instead of being compartmentalized or fragmented as most traditional curricula tend to be. Such integration, he thinks, would help to get rid of a lot of dead wood that is found in many teacher education curricula even today. Some possible bases or foci for integration are also considered.

The article concludes with some suggestions on the organizational and administrative aspects of rural teacher education institutions and with a plea for a strong programme of in-service education for rural school teachers utilizing a "multi-media approach", one medium in this approach being correspondence study.

This article is a plea for a special type of training for educational personnel operating in rural societies in developing countries that is different from what is being generally provided to-day. This statement should not, however, be taken to mean that the kind of training given to such personnel may be inferior in some respects to that given to those who have to work in an urban setting. The quality of the training provided to rural personnel does not have to be lowered merely because its nature has to be differentiated from that provided to urban personnel in order to gear it to the needs of rural schools and of rural communities. What has happened in the past in several efforts all over Asia and elsewhere to gear the training of rural personnel to the needs of rural societies is that there has been a clearly noticeable watering down of standards in respect of the staffing, equipment and even the curriculum of rural teacher training institutions, which has given the impression that rural children do not need the same quality of education as urban children and that, therefore, the training of rural educational personnel could be placed on a lower level than that provided to their urban counterparts. In actual fact, the tasks that rural teachers, supervisors and administrators have to face are more challenging and more demanding than those of their urban colleagues and, therefore, their training has to be of the highest quality possible.

I wish to reiterate what I said nearly twenty years ago, viz. that "potentially, the rural teacher is the true creator of his people".[1] This is true especially in most of the Asian countries where between sixty and seventy per cent of the population lives in the rural areas and where, therefore, the vast majority of primary school teachers are serving in rural schools. Perhaps the most important problem to-day in these countries is the problem of rural transformation which involves an improvement not only in agricultural techniques but also in the whole infrastructure and quality of rural life. This implies, it is true, the involvement of several agencies besides the school; but the role of the school in providing both children and adults with an education which is relevant to a rural society undergoing change, appears to be paramount. One of the main differences between the responsibilities of a rural school teacher and those of his urban counterpart lies in the extent of their direct involvement in the welfare and development of the communities from which their pupils are drawn. In the case of a rural school which is a real social agency and is one with the community, one cannot easily tell where the teacher's life in the school ends and where his life in the village community begins, or vice versa. In such a situation, the rural school teacher becomes an all-purpose minister to the rural children.

Although this article will deal mainly with the problem of training primary school teachers for rural communities, it must be stressed at the outset that other educational personnel concerned with the education of rural children stand in need of special training as much as teachers do. To begin with, there are the policy makers and those responsible for preparing the primary school curriculum. It would be futile to train teachers for rural teaching if those responsible for the organization and administration of rural schools could not be made to see the need for gearing the work of these schools to the needs of the rural population. One of the major difficulties of the rural teacher to-day in many parts of Asia is that he is expected to implement a curriculum that has been prepared in a central office - be it a curriculum planning section in the

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1. Lourenço Filho, M.B. *The training of rural school teachers*, by M.B. Lourenço Filho et al. Paris, Unesco, 1953. (see p. 75)

ministry of education or a curriculum development centre - the members of which have not been particularly concerned with the peculiar needs of the rural child and of the rural family. As Mr. H. W. R. Hawes, writing about the curriculum in developing countries, says, "In most cases, the curriculum in schools is inappropriate to the needs of the children and the community. In many cases the schools are, by any criteria, bad, because the teaching in them is formal, unstimulating and inefficient. These inadequacies are often apparent in their syllabuses of instruction ..... the style and orientation of which remain urban rather than rural in outlook, essentially literary rather than practical".[1]

Curriculum reform is not an easy operation, judging by the many tasks that face those who would attempt to plan changes. One of these several tasks arises from the fact that politicians, educationists and parents often have different views of primary education, and these views need to be brought closer together if not reconciled. It is because of the complexity of the task of curriculum construction that the need arises for providing appropriate training to those who have the responsibility for this undertaking. As Mr. Hawes has indicated in the publication referred to above, in the simplest analysis it is possible to specify five tasks which face those who would attempt to plan curriculum changes; and it is in performing these tasks that curriculum framers need to be adequately trained. The five tasks, all of which are highly complicated and most of which are interrelated, are as follows:

" 1. They must gather information on which to base their planning, ranging from the simplest facts about the schools to the highly sophisticated realms of psychological and sociological research.

2. They should decide what the objectives of their curriculum should be and discuss these objectives with the 'curriculum users'.

3. They need to work out a strategy for curriculum change, decide on its timing and extent, and how it is to be financed. They must set up administrative machinery to control it.

4. They must undertake the detailed process of curriculum development: the planning, trial and modification of syllabuses and educational materials, leading to their introduction into schools.

5. They need to devise means of evaluation and feedback through the development of an efficient system of school examinations

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[1] Hawes, H.W.R. *Planning the primary school curriculum in developing countries*. Paris, Unesco/IIEP, 1972. Fundamentals of Educational Planning series no. 17. (see p. 15)

> and through other types of formal and informal evaluation to be undertaken at all stages of developing the curriculum. All evaluation should be linked to the objectives set".[1]

Another category of educational personnel that would need special training for making an effective contribution to the task of rural transformation through education is the corps of educators entrusted with the task of training teachers for rural schools. Training institutions for rural school teachers will need staff who have specialized in such areas as agricultural education, community education, folk arts, local crafts, etc. in addition to the usual offerings generally provided in primary teacher education institutions. Even if these teacher educators are recruited from amongst those with special academic preparation in these fields - which will not be an easy task - they will still need training in the philosophy, methods and techniques of teacher education and adult education with special reference to the needs of teachers working in rural communities. As one who has had some experience in organizing and implementing courses for teacher educators, which are still very rare in the Asian countries, I am convinced of the vital need for such courses for raising the existing poor quality of teacher education. The Unesco Asian Institute for Teacher Educators, which was established by Unesco in Quezon City, Philippines, in 1962 as a ten-year project, has made a valuable contribution at the regional level in this direction; but not much has been done at the national level in the Asian countries to develop special programmes for the preparation of teacher educators with a view to enhancing the quality of teacher education. If and when this badly needed provision is made in any of the Asian countries, either in the form of a full-time or a part-time in-service training programme, it is hoped that a rural bias will be given to the programme provided for personnel engaged in the preparation of teachers for rural schools.

A third category of personnel who need special training for rural education work is supervisory personnel - the head teachers of rural schools and the elementary school supervisors. However adequately teachers for rural schools may be prepared, they need continuing encouragement, guidance and supervision in their work, not only to ensure that the effects of their training will have permanence, but also to assist them towards further growth and development on their jobs and to draw out their maximum potentialities as teachers and community animators. If teachers, specially those who are working in rural schools (and for whom facilities for further professional development such as libraries and contacts with specialists in the various aspects or branches of education are hard to come by) are left to their own fate, they are likely to fall sooner or later into a dull routine of teaching and living and to lose animating spirit that is so badly needed in their role as transformers of the rural countryside. The rural head teacher and the rural school supervisor are the two beacons and the two batteries wherefrom the rural teacher can draw the light and the power needed by him in his difficult work of rural amelioration. It should not be difficult to draw up a common programme of special training for head teachers and supervisors, with some areas of differentiation for the two groups to provide for the differences in their respective roles. Care should be taken, however, to ensure that programmes meant for rural head teachers and rural school supervisors are given the necessary rural bias.

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[1] *Op. cit.*, p. 24.

Educational administrators, curriculum makers, teacher educators and school supervisors are only indirectly involved in rural school work; but teachers and head teachers working in rural schools are more directly involved in it. This latter group, therefore, is the main focus of attention.

Let us begin with the objectives of teacher education for rural societies. One of the earliest statements of such objectives is the one that was adopted for Brazil's first experiment in the specialized training of teaching staff for rural schools which was initiated in 1934 in the city of Juazeiro do Norte in the state of Ceará. The objectives, which were prescribed for this institution in its regulations were as follows:

"(a) to turn out rural primary school teachers capable of providing sound agricultural training for the young and of introducing them to measures for the protection of health and the promotion of progress in the countryside;

(b) through suitable training of teachers, to help rural primary schools to develop into economic and occupational training centres;

(c) through the teachers, to inculcate in the population land and health consciousness, with an appreciation of the value of thrift and economy, as the condition of personal and community well-being;

(d) to awaken in the farmers and stock breeders of the future, through the primary school teachers, a realization of the importance of their class and of its duty, organized and free of any outside influence, to collaborate with other classes towards the greatness and good government of the country".[1]

Of these four broad objectives, the second would probably be the subject of controversy to-day among educationists in Asia and perhaps even in South America, although some politicians and economists might be tempted to defend it. Even in India where, in the early days of the experiment with Basic Education, a heavy stress was laid on making schools self-sufficient through the productivity of teachers and pupils, the idea of converting schools into economic and occupational training centres would be unacceptable to-day although the latest Primary Teacher Education Curriculum developed by the Department of Teacher Education of the National Council of Educational Research and Training places great emphasis on work-experience as a means of education and includes among the objectives of teacher education the development of a "positive attitude towards manual work" and the equipment of the prospective teacher with the skills needed for "organizing work-experience programmes for school children".[1] Work-experience for children, as I understand it from this, is not intended to convert the school into an economic and occupational training centre; rather, the function of work-experience is to make education work-oriented because of the contribution of such experience to wholesome personality development in all its aspects - physical, intellectual, emotional, social and moral.

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[1] Lourenço Filho, M.B. *et al.*, *op. cit.*, p. 27.

Another statement of the objectives of rural teacher education is found in the description of the Rural Teacher Education Project (TURTEP) for improving rural education which was launched in Thailand in 1956 with Unesco assistance and which was later also assisted by UNICEF. The statement reads as follows:

> "The purpose of the Rural Teacher Education Project is to establish a pilot centre for the training of rural school teachers who will be competent to carry out the double role of educator and community leader. The training provided will combine the techniques of fundamental education and the methods of teaching children, and it should enable teachers to relate their teaching of the subjects to the concerns and needs of school children at different ages. Furthermore, they should acquire the techniques of guiding adults and youth who are out of school in the improvement of their community and of their living standard - health, citizenship, making a living, housing, etc. In this way, the school under them will serve as an educational centre and a community centre as well".

Based on these objectives, the project in Thailand transformed its rural elementary schools into community schools which had as one of their main objectives the amelioration of living standards in rural communities. By 1967, all the teacher training institutions in the country had adopted the principles of TURTEP.

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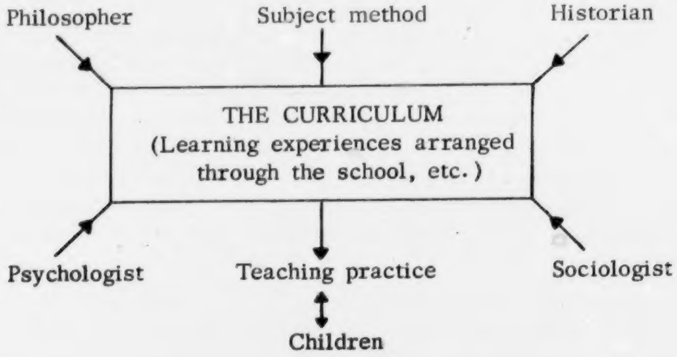
[1] India. National Council of Educational Research and Training. *Primary teacher education curriculum, developed in a National Workshop of Primary Teachers Educators organized in New Delhi, 22-28 February 1969.* New Delhi, /1970/. (see p. 3-4)

A great deal of time is often spent in traditional teacher education institutions, both at the primary and the secondary level, on a series of independent courses in the philosophy, psychology and sociology of education and sometimes even in the history of education and comparative education, of which the contents are very academic in nature. Although such courses can be meaningful to educators at the highest echelons of the educational service, teachers in training subjected to such courses find that they contain little that is directly significant for their work. The trend to-day is to integrate as much as possible these areas in the course on Foundations of Education, specially in the programmes for primary school teachers.

Such integration can be effected in different ways, each of which has something to recommend itself. The aims and objectives of primary education could be one integrating centre or basis, with each aim, for example, the achievement of permanent literacy, being discussed with reference to its philosophical, psychological, and sociological bearings or implications and even, if thought useful, in the perspective of its historical development. Another basis or centre of integration that has been proposed is the primary school curriculum, with each area or subject of the curriculum being discussed with reference to the contributions of psychology, sociology and history to the study of that subject.

Mr. Richard C. Whitfield of the Cambridge University Department of Education is one of those who suggest that a study of the school curriculum can provide an appropriate focus to unify the educational studies in a teacher education programme. The curriculum provides a hook on which to hang contributions related to education, thus making a study of these contributions from philosophy, psychology, sociology, etc. more relevant and meaningful to the students. It also makes the study of education interdisciplinary instead of compartmentalized; but perhaps the most important value of this approach is that it narrows the gap between educational theory and educational practice, providing as it does an opportunity for all professionals - philosophers, psychologists, sociologists, historians and others - who are concerned with education to come together and collaborate in the difficult task of teacher preparation. The following model proposed by Mr. Whitfield indicates that all available agencies serve the school which in turn, through teaching practice and subsequent professional service, directly serves the children.



Child study could be yet another basis of integration of the foundation courses. The value of this approach is that it puts the child, who is the object of the ultimate concern of the educational philosopher, the educational psychologist, the educational sociologist, the educational historian, the educational administrator and the teacher, right in the centre of the educational stage. Making a study of the child at the various stages of his growth and development the core of the teacher education programme facilitates the relating of the contents of the school curriculum and the methods and techniques of teaching to the child's capacities, interests and needs at each stage. In such an approach, it is also easy to stress the conceptual basis of the various subject areas in the way that psychologists like Piaget have done; nor is it difficult to weave in it the sociological perspectives relevant to child growth and development and whatever understanding of the history of education a prospective teacher may need to make him a competent practitioner of the science and art of teaching.

It must be emphasized, however, that in the case of rural school teachers in particular, the community is another object of concern besides the developing child; and so the training programme has to be organized in a manner that takes care of their concern with community development as well as their basic concern with the development of their pupils. Ways and means can easily be found of dovetailing these two facets of the rural teachers' concern. For example, in each of the case studies made by student teachers as part of their practical training, the emphasis could be on the study of the child in his or her relevant local setting. In the Fazenda do Rosario experiment in Brazil in the late forties and early fifties, the following points were expected to be covered by the trainees in their case studies of pupils: (i) Structure of the child's family; (ii) Type of housing, furniture, domestic utensils, state of cleanliness, decoration; (iii) Diet of the family and part played by the child in the preparation of meals; (iv) Work done by the child in the house and on the holding; his contribution to the family income; (v) The child's amusements and playthings; (vi) Religious traditions and festivals; (vii) Treatment of children by their parents in sickness and in health; punishments, rewards, etc.; (viii) Distance travelled by the child between home and school; degree of interest aroused by what he sees on the road, in the fields, in the forests and by flora and fauna; (ix) The influence which the rural school can have on the child's life and through him on the life and prosperity of his family.[1]

Adequate preparation of the trainees for conducting their case studies along these lines would need at least a couple of discussion sessions in which the influence of the child's environment, both human and material, as well as the need for improving the quality of this environment could be strikingly if not dramatically brought home to the trainees.

Organizing an integrated course of teacher education along any one of the lines suggested above is not an easy matter; but it is worth attempting because such a course will not only get rid of a lot of dead wood that has accumulated in the traditional teacher education curricula, but it will also provide greater motivation to student teachers because of its greater and more direct relevance to their work.

The second area of the teacher education programme deals with what are variously called "academic studies", "content and methods courses" or "curriculum courses". Perhaps the second phrase, namely, "content and methods courses" is the most helpful because it avoids a practice that is still found in primary teacher education institutions in several countries in Asia where subject matter content is dished out in courses separate from those dealing with methodology, and the two are often taught by different sets of instructors, the first category sometimes being academicians who have had no professional teacher preparation and the second being trained teachers. These content and methods courses should form the heart of the teacher education programme for both rural and urban teachers, but the content element in them would have to be somewhat different for the two groups in most, if not all, of the subject areas. In the planning and implementation of these courses, it is very important that two broad objectives are kept in mind: one, that the student teacher's own development in each of these areas is furthered; and two, that he is equipped with the knowledge and understandings, abilities and skills, and attitudes and appreciations that are considered necessary to enable him, first of all, to teach these subjects effectively to his pupils in the school and, secondly, to exercise a leadership role in the community of which he forms a part.

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[1] Lourenço Filho, M.B. *et al.*, *op. cit.*, p. 43.

Two areas are significant for the proper preparation of primary school teachers for rural societies. The first of these areas is language. Reference has often been made by educators to the need for making permanent literacy an important objective of language teaching in rural primary schools. The term 'literacy' should be taken to mean an adequate command of the spoken and written language for the communication of facts and ideas and not the bare ability to read and write. The course in language and language teaching in primary teacher education institutions should, therefore, equip the prospective teacher with both a good personal command of the first language and of the methods and techniques of teaching it effectively to his pupils. The course should make the teacher realize that the ability to read with understanding is of primary significance in the educative process of the growing child and that a widespread literacy among the citizens of a country is essential to the smooth working of democracy. A major emphasis in the course should be on language being both an aid to clear thinking and a means of intelligent and effective communication. It is not at all early when the child enters the primary school to begin to train him in clear thinking and effective communication. Moreover, as a community worker, the rural teacher needs to be efficient in the communication of ideas, and such communication has to be both logical and persuasive if the rural adult population is to be helped to accept and adopt new and better ways of working and living. Training in clear and logical thinking and expression, therefore, could be well combined with language study. As regards the contents of the language course in a rural teacher education institution, it would be advisable to include a goodly proportion of materials - stories, poems, songs, essays, biographies, descriptive writing, plays, etc. - related to rural conditions and rural living.

Mathematics is the second of the important courses in the content and methods of teaching. The earlier prescription of 'numeracy' in the narrow sense of facility in computation as the objective of the primary school has given way, even in some of the developing countries, to "training in the wider mathematical concepts of time, space, volume, approximation, proportion, etc., which is achieved initially through children's experience and providing them with the means of enriching and extending that experience in a wider, changing world".[1] In more recent years the "new mathematics" has effected a revolution in school mathematics, and so the prospective primary school teacher's preparation has to include a thorough study of this and other new trends in mathematics teaching including the contributions of Piaget, Bruner and others to the learning of mathematics at the primary stage. Mathematics is one of the few areas in which little or no differentiation can really be made between a curriculum for urban teachers and one for rural teachers except, very properly, when it comes to the selection of examples for the teaching of mathematical concepts and of exercises in problem solving which should relate as much as possible to the environment, urban or rural, for which the teacher is being primarily prepared.

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[1] Houghton, N. *Community schools in developing countries*, ed. by Harold Houghton and Peter Tregear, Hamburg, Unesco/ Institute for Education, 1969. (see p. 27)

The preparation of a course in science for rural school teachers presents, perhaps, the greatest difficulty to the curriculum maker, and this is mainly because there are so many areas of science competing for acceptance in such a course and because in some cases such as, for example, environmental education, there is no clear line of demarcation between science and social studies.

If the curriculum in science for the rural primary school is based on an approach that is life-centred and experience-centred, then the training in science for the prospective rural teacher should be similarly centred. Using this principle, it should be possible to make a suitable selection of materials drawn from the physical and the biological sciences that are meaningful to the rural school teacher in his threefold capacity as an individual living in a scientific age, as a teacher in a rural school and as a social leader in a rural community, and to integrate these elements into a worthwhile interdisciplinary programme that is neither over-ambitious nor superficial. The principal sciences from which such meaningful materials would need to be drawn are botany, zoology, physics, chemistry and geology. There should be no real difficulty in including in such an integrated course the fundamentals of physiology, hygiene and health education, including nutrition education, as well as the essential of ecological or environmental education, including conservation education, which are being so heavily stressed in modern living and in progressive education in the developed countries.[1] It goes without saying that the approach to the study of science in a rural teacher education institution would have to be as practical as possible with emphasis on such activities as laboratory work, field trips, collection and classification, scientific investigations and experiments, developing of instructional materials and aids, organization of exhibits, participation in science club activities, and experimentation with various methods of teaching science to primary school pupils. The entire programme, in both its theoretical and practical elements, should have as its primary objective the development in the prospective teacher of the scientific attitude and the cultivation of the skills needed for the effective employment of the scientific method. For the achievement of this objective, the stress in the training programme should be more on the "process" of science than on the "product" of science.

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[1] National Science Teachers Associations/NEA. *Programs in environmental education*. Washington, D.C., 1970.

In the course in social studies, as in the course in science, the interdisciplinary approach is again indicated in view of the numerous subjects and areas, traditional as well as new, that vie for inclusion in the teacher education programme. The traditional disciplines are represented by history, geography, civics, economics and sociology, while the newer programmes include population education, home and family education, environmental education and conservation education (in their social aspects), investment and consumer education, drug education, and community education. Moral education or ethics is also sometimes included in the social studies, if it is not combined with religion or offered as a separate subject. This long list of subjects and possible programme offerings indicates the difficult task that the curriculum maker faces in developing a well-rounded course for primary school teachers. The problem is further complicated when the course has to be given a rural bias in order to tailor it to the needs of rural school teachers. The main emphasis in the social studies course in a rural teacher education institution should be on preparing teachers to be capable of contributing to socio-economic transformation by encouraging changes in those attitudes, beliefs and traditional practices which tend to retard progress and development in rural societies. In the achievement of this objective, revision of methodology will be as important as revision of content; and the pillars of this methodology will be field investigation, critical enquiry, keen observation, skilful recording and judicious interpretation. As the effective teaching of the social studies at the primary school level can have recourse to a rich variety of methods - narration, biography, use of sources, play way, dramatisation, discussion, problem solving, project, field trip and interview - the prospective teacher has to be encouraged to experiment with these different techniques during his training.

As community education - which could be integrated into the course in social studies - forms a very important part of the training of the rural primary teacher, it may be preferable to give it the status of a separate subject as is the practice in some of the Asian countries even in teacher education institutions that do not have a specifically rural curriculum. If the school is seen both as a part of the rural community and as an agency of community development, the importance of community education for teachers becomes very obvious. The course in community education should aim at helping the prospective teacher to gain practical experience of community life and at developing in him the understandings, skills, attitudes and appreciations needed to co-operate with other community development and social service agencies in fostering an enrichment of village life as well as to utilize available community resources for the improvement of the school. The role of the teacher must be seen to include not only his traditional school activities but also effective participation in community development projects to the extent that his primary task as a teacher will permit. To achieve this goal, the rural teacher education institution must be organized on a village community basis with actual involvement in community development activities covering the basic concerns of daily life: work and rural economy, personal health and community hygiene, the improvement and elevation of domestic life, participation in cultural and recreational activities, good citizenship, and so on.

Related to the course in community education and intended to prepare the prospective rural teacher for effective participation in community development projects would be some provision in the teacher education curriculum for meaningful work-experience, accompanied by facilities for acquiring the knowledge, skills and attitudes needed for an intelligent and effective performance in the chosen areas of work. The experiences sought to be provided should be of interest to the student teachers and of value to the community. They should also as far as possible be similar in nature to those provided for children in the school curriculum. It is necessary that the specific objectives of each type of work-experience that may be provided are clearly spelt out from the point of view of the learner. A good example of such provision of work-experience can be seen in the Primary Teacher Education Curriculum published by the National Council of Education Research and Training in India.[1] The work-experiences provided in this curriculum relate to the five basic needs of life, namely, food, shelter, clothing, health and recreation, and include training in such areas as agriculture, dairying, domestic science, crafts, rural sanitation and recreational and cultural activities. It is presumed that student teachers are permitted to select from among the various courses provided on the basis of their individual interests and abilities. The first part of the course is a content course dealing with the theory and practice of work-experience. The second part deals with the methodology of work-experience and is intended to prepare the teacher for the programme of work-experience provided in the school curriculum.

As craftwork will surely feature as one important area of work-experience for student teachers, the preparation of teaching aids for use in rural schools, most of which in the developing countries are poorly equipped, could be included in the syllabus in this subject. In this part of the course in crafts, student teachers should be encouraged to make use of locally available materials such as local clays, fibres, woods, etc., as well as used and discarded items such as cans, bottles, cardboard cartons, old newspapers (for making papier maché), etc. One useful craft that could be included in the programme of work-experience for rural school teachers is book-binding.

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[1] *Op. cit.*, pp. 46-50.

There are good reasons, too, for including art and music experiences in the curriculum of teacher education institutions, both urban and rural. Not only do such experiences help to develop and strengthen the aesthetic sensitivity of student teachers, but they also provide them with insights that will enable them to guide the aesthetic development of their pupils particularly when specialists in these subjects are not available for employment in rural schools. Moreover, experiences in art and music provide future teachers with opportunities for creative self-expression and for fruitful utilization of leisure besides also developing in them the ability to participate in and to organize programmes of folk music, community singing, drama and celebrations of festivals and national days both in the school and in the community. One of the expected outcomes in the course in art could well be the use of the best products by the students for the beautification of the buildings both of the teacher education institution and of the schools in its neighbourhood. An item that should not be omitted in the art course is lettering and decorative writing which are needed by teachers in preparing charts, posters, flash cards, maps, etc.

As the concept of a rural teacher's function put forward in this article is a wider function concerned not only with teaching children but also with community development, the staff of a rural teacher education institution should contain persons with special qualifications in such areas as rural sociology, community health, agriculture, rural industries and child care. It would be very desirable, too, that the special as well as the regular staff, either before or after their appointment, have had opportunities for wide contacts with such persons as agricultural extension workers, health officers, and community development officers and for actual participation with them in rural development projects which would give all of them not merely a theoretical knowledge of one another's problems and activities but also first-hand personal and practical acquaintance with them. Occasional joint seminars and conferences for all such personnel would also be very helpful in developing a common understanding of, and a unified outlook on, the tasks of rural socio-economic transformation.

Coming to the administration of a rural teacher education institution, it should be run on democratic lines for which there are at least two reasons. In the first place, its activities are so diverse and require such a variety of knowledge and the mastery of so many techniques that very close co-operation is required to co-ordinate the programme if it is to be effective. Secondly, for the smooth and efficient running of such an institution, the interest of every staff member has to be continuously sustained, and this can be done best by giving him a voice in its administration. Moreover, the community life of the members of such an institution, including both staff and students, also needs to be organized on the basis of a democratic society engaged in a co-operative endeavour to raise the socio-economic life of the rural community where it is located, it being understood that its location is rural or at least semi-rural but having responsibility for the communities in its neighbourhood.

In order to encourage student teachers to participate in the activities of the school community as well as the village community, the organization of some form of student government would be very helpful. Such an organization has some very important values:

1. It provides student teachers experience of democratic, co-operative living and develops in them the ability to organize their own schools along similar lines.
2. It enables student teachers to see how the school and the community can be brought together for their mutual benefit.
3. It develops in student teachers a sense of responsibility, and respect for human dignity.
4. It also promotes self-reliance, initiative, persistence in the face of difficulties, and other qualities of leadership as well as of followership.

As co-curricular activities serve to promote community life in the institution as well as the full and harmonious development of the faculties of student teachers, a rich programme of such activities through the organization of a variety of clubs or associations is also indicated. The student government organization, with necessary guidance from the staff of the training institution, should be primarily responsible for the co-curricular programme. Besides the usual forms of co-curricular activities found in urban teacher education institutions such as debating, dramatics, music and dance, art, photography, games and athletics, there is scope for the provision of other types of activities specially suited to the rural environment, such as a naturalists' club, a young farmers' club, an excursions club, a village games club and a co-operative society. Some of the student teachers who are interested in scouting and guiding could also organize troops of boy scouts and girl guides for interested children in the village community.

As provision of work-experience will be an important and characteristic feature of a rural teacher education institution, it is imperative that proper provision is made for the necessary facilities such as land and equipment for farming, workshops for the various crafts included in the curriculum, laboratories for cooking and food processing, and specially equipped rooms for art and music.

As an integrated approach to the curriculum has been proposed at the beginning of this article and as the curriculum contents suggested are geared to meet the needs of rural school teachers, it will be difficult to find suitable textbooks that are based on the integrated approach or the contents of which have been adapted to meet the needs of rural teacher education. Under the circumstances, a system of study assignments specially prepared by the staff members working as a team would be the best procedure to adopt. Each study assignment supplemented by library, laboratory or field work by the student teachers, could then be discussed in a small-group seminar in which not more than twenty to twenty five students participate. In the seminar itself, a variety of teaching-learning procedures could be employed, either singly or in combination, depending upon the nature of each study assignment. Examples of such procedures or methods are lectures-cum-discussions, panel discussions, symposia, group or committee work, workshops, role playing, debates, brains trusts, individual reporting, and demonstration. Audio-visual media such as films, filmstrips, sound tapes, videotapes, records, transparencies, etc. may be used but only when they are seen as likely to make an effective contribution to the learning of the students.

In view of the rapid changes that are taking place in the school curriculum as a result both of the explosion of knowledge and the findings of research in education and the related social sciences, and also because of the comparative intellectual isolation in which the rural school teacher lives and works, the need for in-service training becomes paramount. Educational planners like Mr. H. W. R. Hawes have recognized this need. This is what he has to say on the subject: "Compulsory periods of in-service training must be built into the career structure of every teacher, and in-service training centres must be planned as carefully and staffed as generously as pre-service training colleges. This will involve a drastic revision of both policies and priorities. Yet to fail to do so in the face of qualitative and quantitative wastage of primary teachers is to make a most inefficient use of our human resources; it is like continually forging new metal and then dumping it out in the rain to rust".[1] In the course of the last few decades, several methods and techniques of in-service training have been developed and experimented with, and there is already a considerable body of experience on which educators can depend in developing in-service training programmes. The biggest problem is how to deal effectively with the growing number of teachers, specially in remote rural areas, for whom in-service training has to be provided. Perhaps the answer is to be found

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1. Hawes, H.W.R. *Op. cit.*, pp. 39-40.

in the "multi-media approach" that has been developed by the UNRWA-Unesco Institute of Education in Beirut, in which correspondence study assignments are supplemented by periodic seminars conducted by qualified field supervisors using a variety of audio-visual media, by on-the-job guidance and by short summer courses.[1]

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[1] Unesco. *Better teachers: an experiment with in-service teacher training conducted by the UNRWA/Unesco Institute of Education.* Paris, 1970.

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OUT-OF-SCHOOL EDUCATION FOR YOUTH: A CASE STUDY FROM THAILAND

by Kowit Vorapipatana and Kasama Varavarn

Although the Functional Literacy and Family Life Education Programme in Thailand is still operating on a small scale, it is already beginning to show a significant impact on the educational system of the country. It has introduced a new approach towards the eradication of illiteracy and the promotion of out-of-school education. It has demonstrated that it is possible to develop a low-cost programme that is responsive and relevant to the needs of the out-of-school population. Most important, though, it has been successful in preparing students to further their education, in training them to cope with the problems in their environment, and in becoming responsible members of the society.

Increased contacts with the western countries after the Second World War led to rapid influx of new ideas into the Thai society. Some of these imported ideas are alien to the traditional beliefs and ways of life. The conflict between the old and the new and the conflict between the need to change and the desire to adhere to the accustomed ways of living are felt in every segment of society and in every aspect of life. The limitations of the formal school system in preparing the population for a modern society where new ideas are constantly being introduced and the existing beliefs are constantly being challenged become significant. Education has to become a life-long process which extends beyond the stage of childhood education. With the majority of the population outside the formal school system, education for the out-of-school population, or adult education, thus becomes an indispensable instrument in the developmental process of Thailand.

Thus, from 1949 onwards, the concept of adult education has undergone a radical transformation. It is seen as serving two essential objectives : firstly, it assists the formal system in developing the country ; secondly, it serves a human objective in helping the people solve the problems which are obstacles to their attempts to improve their standard of living by exposing them to new ideas and by providing training in new skills.

The Adult Education Division in the Ministry of Education is the official body responsible for education of the out-of-school population, but in spite of its efforts the need for such programmes has been increasingly felt throughout the country. As a result, during the last 20 years, numerous private and Government programmes came into existence. Although they aim at achieving common goals, on the whole they are operated independently, each one serving specific objectives and specific target groups.

Types of programme

According to a preliminary survey conducted by the National Committee on Adult Education, the present activities in non-formal education can be classified into three categories:

a) Out-of-school academic programmes which provide an education which is equivalent to that given in the formal system from the literacy level up to the university level. These courses are operated in evening classes. Upon completion of a course, the students receive certificates which are equivalent to the certificates of the formal system. At present there are several organizations conducting programmes in this category, under the supervision of the Adult Education Division which is officially in charge of the administration, curriculum development, and co-ordination to the upper secondary level. The academic programmes at the university level, which are increasing in number and are attracting a great deal of public interest, have no coordinating body at the present time and are operated independently.

b) Short courses which are organized to provide knowledge and training of skills on specific subjects. The duration of these courses ranges from five hours to several months, depending on the scope of the topics to be covered. Their organization also varies from one programme to another: some may be like informal interest groups, others are regular classes. The curricula are generally developed by the organizations in charge, and the certificates issued to the students do not have the same credit as the certificates of the formal system.

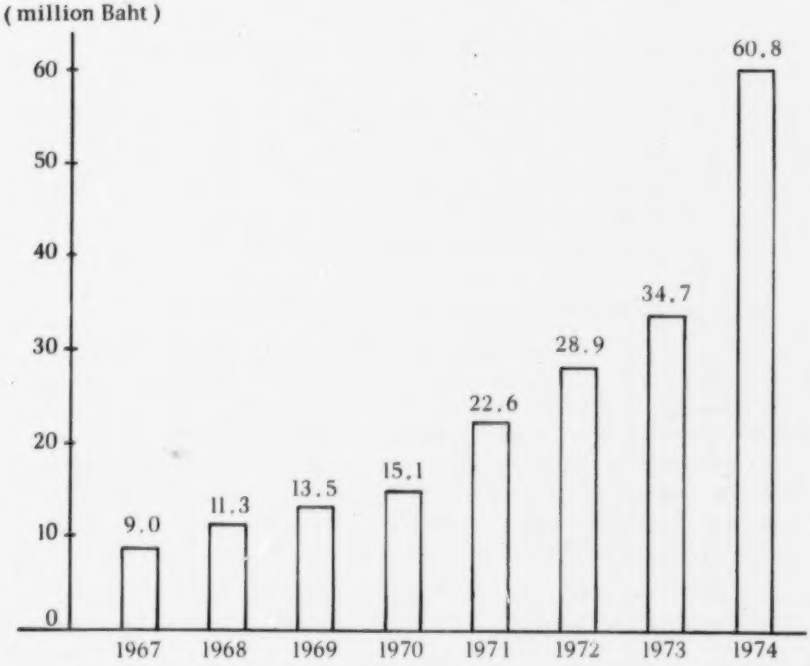
There is a large number of private and governmental agencies independently operating in this category. As there is no central coordinating body yet, these agencies suffer from lack of co-operation and from duplication of effort and are not making the best utilization of their limited budget and personnel. Efforts are being made, however, to solve this problem.

c) Finally, there are programmes for mass education which aim at educating the public through various means of mass communication. The existing programmes can be grouped into six types, namely: library and reading centres, youth centres, panel discussions and lectures, mass media, museums, and exhibitions. Several organizations are involved in these programmes which require relatively small budgets and can be used to reach a large segment of the population.

Government's commitment to adult education

Although the budget allocated to adult education is quite small, being only 0.52% of the entire educational budget in 1972, the Government is becoming increasingly aware of the need for large-scale adult education programmes. While adult education was only briefly mentioned in the Second Educational Plan (1967-1971), it is one of the main concerns in the Third Educational Plan (1972-1976). During the next five years, the Government plans to promote all adult education programmes with special emphasis on continuing education, the use of audio-visual equipment, and provision of reading materials to the out-of-school population. The increase in the budget allocated to the Adult Education Division within the past years as well as the projected increase in the future as shown in the chart reveals this change in attitude. If the funds allocated to adult education programmes conducted by other agencies are included, the total budget for adult education will be even higher.

Budget allocated to the Adult Education Division, 1967-1974



(The budgets for 1973 and 1974 are estimated)

Another strong indication of the Government's increasing awareness of the problem is the revival of the National Committee on Adult Education in 1970 and the appointment of the Advisory Committee on Non-Formal Education in 1972. The Committee on Adult Education had been in existence ever since the establishment of adult education in 1940, but had remained inactive for the most part. By 1971 the scope of adult education activities in Thailand had become so wide that the need was acutely felt for co-ordinating the existing programmes in order to make the best utilization of the available resources and personnel. Therefore, at the initiative of the Ministry of Education, the Council of Ministers agreed to make the National Committee on Adult Education responsible for the formulation of the national policy and the planning and co-ordination of adult education programmes in Thailand. Twelve Under-Secretaries and Directors-General from governmental agencies involved were appointed as members, with the Minister of Education as the chairman. The first task undertaken by the National Committee was to survey the existing conditions in order to plan for future implementation and co-ordination.

While the work of the Committee on Adult Education was under way, the Council of Ministers was dissolved in the 1971 Coup d'Etat. The National Executive Committee which took over the governance of the country appointed in 1972 the Advisory Committee to study the existing conditions of non-formal education and to make recommendations for future plans. The definition of non-formal education adopted by the Advisory Committee is similar to the one agreed upon by the National Committee on Adult Education, that is, non-formal education or adult education is any educational programme organized for the out-of-school population to achieve specific objectives. Thus, non-formal education and adult education are recognized as being one. Also, the Advisory Committee decided to make use of the survey conducted by the National Committee on Adult Education in framing its own recommendations concerning the future of non-formal education in Thailand.

The out-of-school academic programme in Thailand

While the scope of out-of-school education covers a large variety of programmes, this article will focus on the first category, namely, the academic programme which offers courses equivalent to those within the formal system from the primary to the secondary level. At present the academic programme consists of the Functional Literacy and Family Life Education Project which is equivalent to lower primary level, and three post-literacy courses which are equivalent to upper primary, lower secondary and upper secondary education respectively.

With the exception of functional literacy and family life education project, the programme is highly academically oriented. Even then, it has elicited considerable interest from the public: the total enrolment in 1972, for example, was 76.562, which exceeded the projection in the Third Educational Plan by 842 students. If the present trend of interest continues, it is expected that the total enrolment will be over 100,000 by the end of 1973. In order to accommodate the demand from the out-of-school population and to make the programme relevant to the needs of the students, the Adult Education Division plans to revise the post-literacy courses along the same lines as the functional literacy programme. It is therefore at the functional literacy programme that this article should direct the reader's attention, since it represents the future trend not only in the eradication of illiteracy but also in the education for the out-of-school population.

A. Historical background of the literacy programme

The first literacy classes were established by the Adult Education Division in 1940 in an attempt to reduce the illiteracy rate from 68.8% as revealed in the 1938 census. Although these evening classes were established for illiterates over the age of fifteen, the curriculum was similar to that of the primary school. The subjects taught include Thai, mathematics, civic responsibility, geography, history, health education and basic vocational training. The percentage of time allotted to academic and vocational courses was 70% and 30% respectively. The vocational content of the curriculum, however, was too elementary to be of much practical use to adult learners. Moreover, the supplementary reading materials provided in the course were developed merely as reading exercises.

If there was one main factor contributing to the high enrolment in these classes, it was the Compulsory Education Act (1940) which required all Thais to possess literacy skills at Pratom (Primary Grade) 2 level. As a result, the enrolment in these classes at the onset of the programme was high and within three years the total number of illiterates was reduced by 1.409.686.

Since these classes were operated free of charge, the budget for the operation had to come entirely from the Government. During the Second World War, owing to the economic instability, the Government could no longer afford to sustain large-scale literacy programmes and was forced to abolish the Compulsory Education Act. The literacy classes remained in operation on a voluntary basis, but the enrolment dropped sharply and the programme came to a standstill.

It was not until 1963, when the national census revealed that 23% of the population over 15 years old were illiterate, that the Government was forced to reconsider a literacy programme again. The original fundamental education programme was maintained as the literacy programme for the rural population, while a more academic curriculum was developed for the illiterate population in the urban areas.

The new literacy curriculum consisted of two six-month courses corresponding to Primary Grades II and IV in the formal school system. Unlike the fundamental education curriculum which attempted to integrate literacy training with basic vocational education, the academic programmes level 1 and level 2 were modelled more closely after the primary school curricula. Although the newly introduced curricula were successful in attracting the illiterates who needed formal credentials, the programme still suffered from high dropout and failing rates. For example, only 6,922 students out of the entire enrolment of 11,208 actually completed the course in 1963.

In order to assess the performance of these literacy courses, one must look at the literacy conditions in the country. By 1960 the Adult Education Division was producing 20,000 literates each year. Meanwhile 4% of the school-age children failed to enter school. Thus even excluding the children who remained illiterate in schools and those who lapsed into illiteracy after leaving school, the number of illiterates still exceeded the number of graduates from the adult education programme by 14,000 each year. Therefore it became obvious that the existing literacy programme was far from adequate. To remedy this situation, not only the curriculum had to be revised, but a new approach towards literacy had to be adopted as well.

In the same year, Unesco sponsored an international seminar on literacy which was attended by the Minister of Education and the Chief of the Adult Education Division. At this seminar the concept of "functional literacy" was introduced. Literacy alone was recognized as insufficient for development as well as for motivating adult illiterates to attend class. Therefore, the Unesco's programme integrated literacy with the teaching of occupational skills, which would assist the learners to apply the knowledge they would gain in the classroom. It was expected that by making the literacy curriculum more relevant to the needs of the adult illiterates, the problems of motivation would be solved.

In 1968 an experimental functional literacy programme was set up in Lampang, a province in the north of Thailand, and was later expanded to other provinces in the same area by 1970. The core of the curriculum consisted of two reading primers and supplementary reading materials; the texts were based on a survey of the target population, and the content presentation was similar to that in the textbooks used in the regular classes, with more functional materials added, i.e. health care, nutrition and agriculture. After the learners passed a certain reading level, supplementary materials with general information about occupational skills were provided.

The final evaluation showed that while the students performed well in the literacy skills, they learned very little of the functional aspects of the curriculum. The programme also failed to motivate the students to attend classes regularly. Moreover, the attrition rate was very high and a large number of students dropped out before the functional aspect of the curriculum was introduced. Other equally important problems were encountered. Initially, the programme intended to employ health officials, doctors, and other extension workers to demonstrate applications of the knowledge taught. However, the plans did not take into account the shortage of these workers and the lack of transportation to and from classes which were held at night, so that primary school teachers alone had to supply both general information and practical knowledge of occupational skills. The majority of teachers were elementary school teachers with no specialized training, who often felt incompetent to discuss the topics that required in-depth technical knowledge such as agriculture and health care. Consequently, they ignored the functional aspects of the curriculum and concentrated on teaching reading and writing for which they were trained.

Due to these problems, the Adult Education Division decided to revise its programme in 1970. In June of the year, World Education invited a group of Thai education and health officials to an Inter-Regional Workshop on Functional Literacy and Family Life Planning, held in India. Delegates took the opportunity to redesign the entire approach to functional literacy in Thailand and included in its new design content related to family life planning. With technical and financial assistance provided through World Education and the United States Operation Mission to Thailand (USOM), the revision of the functional literacy curriculum was got under way in 1970.

B. The functional literacy and family life education programme (Thai model)

1. Implementation

The pilot project in functional literacy and family life education was initiated in 1971 in the province of Lampang and Prae. After the successful completion of the pilot project, the programme was expanded to 7 provinces in the north and 5 provinces in the south of Thailand. The policy of the Government is to replace gradually all traditional literacy classes with functional literacy classes. Since expansion to new areas requires adaptation of curriculum as well as training of teachers and supervisors, the programme cannot cover the whole country before 1977.

Expansion plan to the functional literacy and family life educational programme (cumulative members)

Year	Regions	Provinces	Classes	Students
1971	1	2	20	427
1972	2	12	102	2 120
1973	6	32	280	5 600
1974	8	44	400	8 000
1975	9	51	600	12 000
1976	10	60	800	16 000
1977	12	71	950	19 000

(Expansion plan from 1973 is estimated)

2. Content

The ultimate goal of the Thai functional literacy and family life education programme is to help the illiterate cope with the problems of his environment by providing necessary information, correcting misconceptions, and when possible, encouraging application of acquired knowledge.

Therefore, the development of the curriculum begins with the identification of the problems and obstacles in the daily life of the rural communities. As a first step, a baseline survey of the target population is conducted ; their characteristics - beliefs, habits, living conditions, needs, and language patterns - are observed. In addition, a committee consisting of representatives from various ministries such as the Ministry of Interior, the Ministry of Public Health, and the Ministry of Agriculture is appointed to describe the problems encountered in their work. From these two measures a list of problems is compiled which are to be solved by the curriculum. These problems are not isolated or focused on one or two areas of specialization, but are parts of the interrelated needs of the entire family as a unit. Although the details may differ from one region to another according to the local conditions, they can be subsumed under four aspects of human condition:

1. earning a living ;
2. family economics and consumer education ;
3. health and family planning ;
4. civic responsibility.

After the problems have been identified, the curriculum is developed to assist the learners to cope with these problems through the teaching of the right concepts.

To that effect, information and facts are provided, which will enable the students to understand why the existing conditions are problems and how these problems affect their living conditions. Alternatives are explored and the implications in adopting these alternatives examined. When necessary, outside resource persons are invited to provide further information on the application of acquired knowledge. Examples of problems and concepts are given below:

(i) Existing condition: after the harvesting season, the farmers leave their field uncultivated.

Problem: the farmers lose a possible source of additional income and often spend their free time idly.

Concept: the farmers should grow rotation crops after harvesting so that they will earn additional income and the soil will regain its fertility.

(ii) Existing condition: a large number of the people in the rural areas often build animal pens underneath their houses.

Problem: this practice is hazardous to their health.

Concept: their health is directly related to the hygiene of their environment. Animal pens should be built away from the living quarters. If this is not possible, then special efforts must be made to keep them clean.

The main technique employed in teaching concepts is group discussion, which is consonant with the natural learning environment of Thai adults: it is common indeed for neighbours to gather in the evenings and chat about family and village problems. In addition, in order to participate in the activity, the learner must project the results of his own experiences and compare them with alternative courses of action; he must also listen to and consider conflicting ideas from others. This technique has proved to be effective in encouraging the learner to be rational and practical in deciding how to improve his existing conditions.

Accompanying the concepts is the teaching of literacy skills. The mastery of literacy skills by itself is no longer regarded as the end product of the educational process, but rather serves as a means to increasing knowledge and access to information. In teaching literacy skills, complete sentences are used and these are based on the theory that adults learn best when they are focusing on full ideas. Only after the learners have grasped the concept conveyed in the lesson does the teacher teach the phonetics of the words in the sentences. The reading ability increases as students begin to associate sounds, symbols and meanings. Reading and writing exercises are provided along with the main concepts and exercises in each lesson.

The rationale for this method is based on the theory that it is easier to acquire literacy skills if the learners understand what they read. Moreover, anthropological studies have found that illiterates tend to compensate for lack of literacy symbols through highly developed memory because of their reliance on word-of-mouth for the transfer of information.

3. Texts

The text consists of individual cards bound together in a looseleaf cover. During the first class, the student receives an empty file and the cards pertaining to the first lesson. In each consecutive class he receives only those cards which he will study that night. Students measure their progress as the cards gradually build up to form books.

Each card consists of two parts. The first page is a photograph depicting the concepts of the lesson with key words printed underneath, and is intended to stimulate discussion. The second page is the summary text to be used as both a reading exercise and reference material for the students after class. Reading, writing and arithmetic exercises are provided in separate volumes.

The design of the text is based on past experiences in literacy programmes which have shown that the illiterates tend to be discouraged by thick-volume texts. By employing text cards, this problem can be avoided. Moreover, as the programme expands to other regions, the text can be adapted by inserting new cards in or taking out irrelevant cards.

4. Teachers

Up to the present time, only primary school teachers are employed in functional literacy classes. They are selected by local education officers on the basis of their familiarity with the problems in the area, their personality, and their academic credentials.

Since most of these teachers have no previous experience working with adult illiterates, they are given a one-week training session prior to the onset of the programme, when they are briefed on the following topics: adult education, curriculum, psychology, teaching techniques, and evaluation. Illiterates are invited to serve as students for the teachers to practice teaching. Resource persons from various fields such as health workers, agriculturalists and district officers are invited to give the teachers background information on the topics included in the syllabus.

To further the capability of the teachers in conducting functional literacy classes, two teachers' manuals have been developed with detailed lesson plans and additional information.

Twice during the implementation of the programme, the teachers are called for follow-up meetings, which are organized to help them solve some of the problems encountered in their work. Apart from the discussion of the problems and their solutions, the meetings concentrate on the improvement of classroom activities. With the use of video-tape, the performance of the teacher in an actual classroom situation is filmed; then he and his fellow-teachers are asked to evaluate it and to suggest improvements.

Supervisors and administrators are involved in all training sessions and follow-up meetings so that they acquire experience in giving on-the-spot guidance to the students.

The utilization of primary school teachers in functional literacy classes has certain advantages. Firstly, it provides a sizeable amount of remuneration to the teachers which serves as another compensation for their working in the rural areas. Secondly, training primary teachers to become good adult teachers may also help them to become better teachers for children: various techniques for teaching adults such as group discussion may be valuable in the primary classes.

The practice, however, is not free from several important problems. Foremost among these is the teachers' adherence to the lecturing technique, frequently employed in primary classrooms. In spite of the concentrated efforts made to promote group discussion in functional literacy classes, many teachers still employ this technique. After two years of experimentation, it does appear that undoing this habit of the teachers is a complex task which will take a long time and may require changes in the curricula of the existing teacher training courses. Secondly, while these teachers make good literacy teachers, they seldom are the best persons to convey concepts and to encourage changes of attitudes: often they are too much concerned with literacy skills.

From 1973 onwards, the programme plans to experiment with the use of local leaders or resource persons as teachers in functional literacy classes. They will be required to have at least a Pratom 7 education in order to be able to teach literacy. Otherwise they are selected on the basis of their understanding of the local problems, their experience with community development, and their prestige in the village. Among the local leaders who will teach in functional classes in 1973 are youth leaders trained by the Unesco Fundamental Education Centre at Ubon Ratchathani Province, village headmen, monks and respected villagers. These people have in the past played an important role in motivating the illiterates to attend classes: it is expected that with their understanding of the problems and their prestige among fellow villagers, they will make successful functional literacy teachers.

C. Evaluation of the programme

There are two objectives in evaluating the functional literacy and family life education programme. One is to assess the implementation of the programme and the other is to measure the level of performance of the students.

1. Methods

Up to the present time both types of evaluation have been conducted by the Adult Education Division in co-operation with the supervisors in the provinces. Three kinds of study are included as follows:

(a) A pre-test and post-test comparison is made to evaluate the effectiveness of the programme in reaching specified goals.

The following tools are employed in this evaluation:

(i) A reading test which measures reading abilities on a scale of one to nine, ranging from the ability to recognize the alphabet letters to the ability to read complex sentences;

(ii) A mathematics test which is similarly rated on a scale of one to nine, from the ability to recognize mathematical symbols to the ability to solve complex problems (these scales do not correspond to the grades in the formal schools);

(iii) A questionnaire to assess attitudinal change; the form consists of fixed-alternative questions, and each question is designed to determine the learners' attitudes towards a concept taught in class (some questions used in the questionnaire are: It is unnecessary to select good rice seed as all seed results in the same yield; Animal pens should be built beneath the house so that they will be easy to take care of).

(b) The second type of study conducted is classroom evaluation by the supervisors throughout the programme.

(c) In order to measure the progress made by the students, periodic tests are given after completion of every three lessons in the programme. Ninety per cent of these tests consist of multiple-choice questions while the remaining 10% are open-ended questions. The content of the tests covers both literacy and the concepts introduced in the three lessons.

From 1973 onwards, however, the supervisors in the provinces will take over the responsibility of measuring the performance of the students. Students with more than 70% attendance rate will automatically receive a certificate which is equivalent to a Pratom 4 certificate in the formal system. Students with less than 70% attendance rate will have to make up for the time lost before receiving the certificates.

Although the programme is developed primarily for adult illiterates who have no intention to continue their education and who will remain in the rural areas, the needs of the out-of-school population for academic credentials, which remain to be essential keys to employment and further education, are recognized. Therefore, in spite of the differences in the curricula, the graduates from the six-month course of functional literacy and family life education will receive certificates which are given the same credits as the four-year programme of lower primary education.

The two programmes are equated on the following basis:

(a) Adult illiterates can think and communicate more proficiently than Pratom 4 children. Their oral vocabulary is wider and more varied, particularly in the aspects that are relevant to their daily living. Due to their competence in the oral language and their highly developed memory, it is expected that the adult illiterates will be able to master reading and writing skills at a greater speed than the primary school children. Although the textbooks are written at Pratom 4 level, the vocabulary included is selected from the everyday language of the learners and consists in words that the learners are familiar with and use in their daily lives.

On the whole literacy skills provided to the adult learners in the programme will enable them to be functional literates in their environment. By providing follow-up materials, the programme hopes not only to retain the reading skills but to improve the level of competence as well.

(b) All the mathematics concepts in the primary curriculum are included in the functional literacy and family life education curriculum. The explanations and the exercises in each lesson, however, are selected to apply to the daily life of the learners. For instance, the example used in the lesson on graphs will be a graph showing the increase in productivity of the soil after the use of fertilizer. Since most of the adult illiterates have mastered some mathematics concepts from their experience, it is expected that they can progress at a faster rate than the primary students.

(c) Although the syllabus of the functional literacy and family life education programme is not identical to the syllabus of primary education, it covers a wider scope of subjects, being concerned with the improvement of all aspects of human conditions. The aim of the programme is not only to provide factual information on specific topics (which may become obsolete with time) but also to train the learners to solve the problems in their environment by equipping them with the means to broaden their knowledge and the ability to select useful and relevant information to apply in their daily lives.

These factors together with the recognition of wide experience and knowledge gathered by the adult illiterates are taken into consideration in granting primary Grade II credits to functional literacy and family life education graduates.

2. Outcomes of the programme

After two years of the pilot project, certain conclusions can be drawn about the outcomes of the programme as follows:

(a) Interest from the public

In the beginning, the programme encountered some difficulties in trying to convince the adult illiterates, particularly those who had no need for formal credits, to enrol. Many illiterates associated functional classes with the rigid traditional literacy and primary classes. Some did not feel the need for literacy skills while others felt they were too old. With the assistance from community leaders such as village headmen, monks and respected villagers, the education officers finally succeeded in convincing the potential students of the differences between functional literacy and literacy programmes in the past. It is expected that the provision of follow-up materials at the village level, involvement of local leaders and success of previous literacy classes in the area,will motivate the adult illiterates to enrol in greater number.

(b) Clientele

Although the functional literacy and family life education programme is developed primarily for adult illiterates in the rural areas, it also attracts students from varied backgrounds as indicated by the data on a sample of students enrolled in the pilot project in 1971 and 1972.

Sex. Approximately two-thirds of the students in the samples of 1971 and 1972 were males. This may be due to several factors such as the late class-hours, lack of need for literacy skills among the women and responsibilities at home. The programme is attempting to remedy these factors that have been found to inhibit the attendance of rural women in order to motivate more women to enrol in the programme.

Age. In the past two years, students in the programme have come from different age-groups ranging from under 15 to over 40 years old, as shown in the following table:

Sample of students in the functional literacy programme classified by age, 1971 and 1972

Age-groups	Sample in 1971	Sample in 1972 (5 southern provinces only)	Remarks
Under 15	5	-	Data on students enrolled in northern provinces are being compiled.
15 - 19	66	21	
20 - 24	23	8	
25 - 29	16	7	
30 - 34	38	8	
35 - 39	49	16	
Over 40	55	40	
Total	252	100	

The programme however, is attempting to increase the enrolment of those in the 15-30 age-group with a view to making a greater impact on the working force of the nation.

Marital status. More than 50% of the students in the 1971 and 1972 samples were married; among them, those with 1 to 6 children formed the largest group. The data on the marital status and the number of children of the students have several implications to the family life education content in the curriculum: firstly, it should foster awareness of population problems among all students; secondly, it should help to prepare for married life those who are still single; thirdly, it should enable the young married couples to have the desired number of children; fourthly, it should help the families with a large number of children solve their problems.

Academic background. Although the programme aims at the illiterates who have never attended school, less than 50% of the students in the sample groups were in this category. This proportion may be even lower in actuality because many of the adults who have had some form of schooling did not want to admit that they had reverted to illiteracy. On the whole, the data on academic background do suggest that the programme has achieved some success in providing education for adults who have never attended school, for drop-outs from the formal system, as well as for primary school graduates who have reverted to illiteracy.

Occupations. It was found that the programme has succeeded in attracting potential students from varying backgrounds. The data on the limited sample of 1972 suggest that the students in functional classes represent the population of rural illiterates: although they come from varying backgrounds, over 80% of the students are engaged in agriculture

Since only 4% are in civil service, which requires academic credentials for job promotion, the data indicate that there exist some other motivating factors that attract the enrolment of adults in other occupations who have no need for academic credentials.

(c) Drop-out rate

One of the major problems in any literacy campaign is the high rate of drop-outs. The necessity to make the functional literacy programme as flexible to the conditions and the needs of the learners as possible is recognized and several measures are being taken to ensure this flexibility. Apart from the development of special curricula and learning materials for the adult illiterates, class regulations are more relaxed than in primary classrooms. In order to make the illiterates feel less restricted and inhibited, some classes are conducted outside the primary classroom, often in the temple grounds or at the teacher's house. When classes have to be in a primary school, the seating arrangement is reorganized to create a less structured atmosphere. Clothing rules are minimal. In some cases, the learners are allowed to bring their children to class. The timing of the courses as well as class-hours are set at the convenience of the students. For example, in the villages where the farmers leave their land to work in other areas after the harvesting season, the programme will operate during the rice-farming period.

On the whole, the programme attempts to maintain regular attendance of the students not only by making the classroom activities relevant and interesting but also by transforming each session into a social gathering in order to create a sense of belonging as well as a more friendly atmosphere. Teachers are encouraged to take an active interest in the students. Often, after class, the students are invited to stay on for an informal gathering. Group activities are organized. For example, in many villages, the students contribute donations to local charity or work in community projects as a group.

In the last two years of the pilot project, the programme has succeeded in achieving a relatively low drop-out rate. The drop-out rate in 1971 was 12.6% or 55 students out of the total enrolment of 452. Out of these numbers, only two preferred not to participate while others ceased to come for other reasons such as poor health, migration, occupational engagement, and death.

In the second year of implementation in the northern provinces, the drop-out rate is estimated at less than 10%. In the south where the programme is under experimentation for the first year, it is quite high, at 37%. A close examination of the southern programme reveals that the drop-out rate tends to differ strikingly from one class to another: there were no drop-outs at Surasthani where supervision has indicated that the operating conditions are close to ideal, while in other less successful locations the rate ranges from nearly 20% to 50%.

It is hoped that through studies of the successful classes, employment of local leaders as teachers, improvement of facilities, more trained supervisors, and revision of the curriculum, the drop-out rate can be greatly lowered.

(d) Literacy and arithmetic skills

In the first year of the programme, the reading ability of the sample group was found to increase from the average of 3.94 level to 6.43 level. The arithmetic skill also increased from 3.79 level to 6.53 level. In both tests the students in functional classes made more progress than the students in control groups. From the available data on students in Region 3, the progress of the students in the second year was equally satisfactory.

Up to the present time there have been no studies to compare the literacy skills of primary graduates and functional literacy graduates. Since there are no graduates from the first-year programme enrolled in higher levels of education, there is no available evidence on how well the functional literacy programme has prepared the students for higher education. Plans are being made, however, to conduct a follow-up evaluation of the functional literacy graduates in order to measure their retention rate.

(e) Concepts

Through the use of fixed-alternative questions and oral examinations, it was found that the students do possess the knowledge conveyed in the class and have developed more positive attitudes towards the concepts in the programme. These questionnaires, however, do not provide very clear indications of the change of attitudes on the part of the students. Forms are being revised so that a more accurate assessment can be made. In addition, plans are being made to study the retention of attitudes and the application of acquired knowledge in the everyday lives of the learners.

(f) Costs of financing

The implementation of the programme during the past two years has shown that it is possible to develop a functional curriculum which will provide primary education to the learners at a low cost.

Since functional literacy classes are conducted in elementary schools or other existing facilities, no great expenses on facilities are required. Thus, the costs are limited to remuneration of teachers and expenses for instructional materials, for supervision and for training and printing as shown in the following table:

Recurrent costs of one functional classroom of 25 students in 1973
(in Baht)

Teacher's remuneration	Expenses for classroom materials	Supervisor's remuneration and travel costs	Training costs of one teacher	Printing costs for one class	Total recurrent costs for one class	Costs per student
4 000	600	412	800	chart 582 text 625 1 207	7 019	281

The cost for educating a functional literacy student up to Pratom 4 level is roughly estimated at Baht 281, which is a great deal cheaper than through the formal system.

(g) Co-operation with other programmes

Throughout the implementation of the pilot project, attempts have been made to co-ordinate the functional literacy programme with other adult education programmes. During the six-month course, mobile audio-visual units visit all functional classes to show educational films relating to the content of the curriculum. When possible, extension workers from the Adult Education Vocational Section and other organizations are invited to provide detailed information to the students. In addition,public libraries and reading centres are established to supply the new literates with reading materials at provincial and district levels. And since follow-up materials must be provided to help the new literates retain and improve their reading ability, a newspaper reading centre project was initiated in 1971.

After a year of pilot projects in 75 villages in the northern province of Lampang, the programme appears to be highly promising. Firstly, it creates the need for literacy skills at the village level. Secondly, it helps to retain reading abilities and to promote reading habits among the villagers. Thirdly, by keeping the villagers informed of the happenings in other parts of the nation, it helps to foster a sense of awareness. Fourthly,since the Adult Education Division requires that the villagers form a committee to be responsible for the centres, the programme encourages the villagers to become actively involved in community projects. Fifthly, the programme will create a newspaper delivery network which will eventually cover the entire nation and can be used to disseminate other printed materials.

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SECTION 3

BIBLIOGRAPHICAL SUPPLEMENT

FIRST LEVEL OF EDUCATION IN ASIA
L'ENSEIGNEMENT DU PREMIER DEGRE EN ASIE

An annotated bibliography of relevant reports and documents
Bibliographie Annotée de rapports et documents pertinents

This bibliography, compiled from holdings in the library of the Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia, is an attempt to sketch through citations developments that have taken place at the first level of education within the last twenty years. In place of an alphabetical arrangement, items are numbered for reference purposes. On the other hand, for publications relating to specific countries (the majority of which are publications of the last five years), the alphabetized sequence has more or less been followed. Titles which are self-explanatory are not annotated.

Cette bibliographie, établie à partir du catalogue de la bibliothèque du Bureau régional de l'Unesco pour l'éducation en Asie, se propose, au moyen de titres choisis, de jalonner le développement de l'enseignement primaire en Asie durant les vingt dernières années. Au lieu de l'ordre alphabétique que ce parti excluait, on a choisi de numéroter les titres afin de faciliter les réferences. En revanche, pour les publications relatives aux divers pays (dont la plupart datent de moins du cinq ans) on a conservé autant que possible l'ordre alphabétique. Certains titres suffisamment clairs par eux-mêmes ne font pas l'objet d'une notice.

1. XIVth International Conference on Public Education convened by Unesco and the IBE, Geneva, July 1951. *Compulsory education and its prolongation.* Paris, Unesco/Geneva, IBE [1951?] 168 p. (IBE Publication no. 132)
2. XIV^e Conférence internationale de l'instruction publique convoquée par l'Unesco et le BIE, Genève, juillet 1951. *La scolarité obligatoire et sa prolongation.* Paris, Unesco/Genève, BIE [1951?] 168 p. (BIE Publication no. 133)
3. XIVth International Conference on Public Education convened by Unesco and the IBE, Geneva, July 1951. *Proceedings and recommendations.* Paris, Unesco/Geneva, IBE [1952?] 151 p. (IBE Publication no. 134)
4. XIV^e Conférence internationale de l'instruction publique convoquée par l'Unesco et le BIE. *Procès-verbaux et recommandations.* Paris, Unesco/Genève, BIE [1952?] 151 p. (BIE Publication no. 135)

Convinced that the effective method for eliminating ignorance lies in a long-term programme to provide free and compulsory education for all children of school age, Unesco launched such a programme by holding an international conference in Geneva in 1951. This Conference was attended by representatives of Ministries of Education from 49 States - 11 of which are in Asia - and adopted a recommendation which outlines the main principles that should govern the application of free and compulsory education. This recommendation has been very widely disseminated and has been translated into a number of languages.

Convaincue que la seule façon efficace d'éliminer l'ignorance consiste à mettre en oeuvre un programme à long terme assurant un enseignement obligatoire et gratuit à tous les enfants d'âge scolaire, l'Unesco a lancé un tel programme en organisant à Genève, en 1951, une Conférence internationale à laquelle ont participé des représentants des ministères de l'éducation de 49 pays, dont 11 d'Asie. Les participants ont adopté une recommandation qui esquisse les grands principes à suivre pour généraliser un tel enseignement. Ce texte a été traduit en de nombreuses langues et a fait l'objet d'une très large diffusion.

5. Unesco Regional Conference on Compulsory Education, Bombay, December 1952. *Compulsory education in South Asia and the Pacific, report of the ... Conference ...* Paris, Unesco, 1954. 157 p. (Studies on compulsory education,XIII)
6. ______. Conférence régionale sur l'enseignement gratuit et obligatoire, Bombay, décembre 1952. *L'obligation scolaire en Asie du Sud et dans le Pacifique, Compte rendu.* Paris, 1954. 186 p. (Etudes sur la scolarité obligatoire, XIII)

To pursue the campaign for free and compulsory education for all children of school age, Unesco has used several lines of approach, one of which was calling a series of regional conferences for the purpose of studying on the spot and in some details the problems of compulsory education common to each region. The region of Asia was chosen for holding the first regional conference to which this report is devoted. The first part of the report takes up the question of compulsory education and attempts to identify the needs and problems requiring study and action through country reviews and discussions on compulsory education. The recommendations call for mobilizing the resources of Member States and enlisting the assistance of international organizations for meeting these needs and solving these problems. The minimum period for compulsory education was recommended for 7 years with the prospect for future prolongation.

En vue de poursuivre l'exécution de la campagne en faveur de l'enseignement gratuit et obligatoire pour tous les enfants d'âge scolaire, l'Unesco a employé plusieurs méthodes, dont l'une a consisté à convoquer une série de conférences régionales destinées à étudier sur place, de façon détaillée, les problèmes communs aux divers pays d'une même région en matière d'enseignement obligatoire. L'Asie a été choisie pour la première de ces conférences, à laquelle est consacré le présent compte rendu. La première partie expose la question de l'enseignement obligatoire, et s'efforce au moyen de rapports nationaux d'identifier les besoins et les problèmes à étudier et à résoudre. Les recommandations formulées ensuite préconisent à cet effet la mobilisation des ressources nationales et l'aide des organisations internationales compétentes. La durée minimale de la scolarité obligatoire devrait être de sept années, susceptible d'être prolongée ultérieurement.

7. Unesco. *Studies on compulsory education.* Paris, 1951-1955.
   - VII. Manich Jumsai, M.L. *Compulsory education in Thailand.* 1951.
     ______. *L'obligation scolaire en Thailande.* 1951.
   - IX. Isidro, Antonio and others. *Compulsory education in the Philippines.* 1952.
     ______. *L'obligation scolaire aux Philippines.* 1952.
   - XI. Saiyidain, K.G. and others. *Compulsory education in India.* 1953.
     ______. *L'obligation scolaire en Inde.* 1953.
   - XII. Huq, M.S. *Compulsory education in Pakistan.* 1954.
     ______. *L'obligation scolaire au Pakistan.* 1954.
   - XIV. Bilodeau, Charles, Somlith Pothammavong and Lê Quang Hông. *Compulsory education in Cambodia, Laos and Viet-Nam.* 1954.
     ______. *L'obligation scolaire au Cambodge, au Laos et au Viêt-nam.* 1954.

XV. Hutasoit, M. *Compulsory education in Indonesia.* 1954.
______. *L'obligation scolaire en Indonésie.* 1955.

Concurrent with the two conferences cited earlier and as a follow-up action to them, a series of national and comparative studies were undertaken, eight of which were for Asian countries. The studies show how the principle of universal, free and compulsory education was applied and point out the problems encountered in developing a satisfactory system of compulsory schooling. Results of action taken are described.

Concurremment avec les deux conférences sus-mentionnées et à titre de mesure complémentaire, l'Unesco a fait procéder à une série d'études nationales et comparatives, dont huit concernent des pays d'Asie. Ces études montrent comment la principe d'un enseignement obligatoire, gratuit et universel est appliqué dans ces pays, soulignent les difficultés remontrées dans la mise au point d'un système satisfaisant de scolarité obligatoire et décrivent les résultats des mesures déjà prises.

8. Regional Seminar on Primary School Curriculum for South Asia, Karachi, 14-29 May 1956. *Report and recommendations of the Seminar convened by the Ministry of Education of Pakistan in collaboration with Unesco.* Karachi, Government of Pakistan Press, 1956. 24 p.

As a result of the initiative taken by Unesco in offering Member States assistance in organizing regional seminars on primary school curriculum, the present Seminar was convened by the Government of Pakistan. The participants reviewed the primary school curriculum, teaching methods, school facilities, textbooks, training of teachers and other related matters in the participating countries. The recommendations called for making the primary school curriculum indigenous, taking what was best and vital in the national tradition and relevant to the needs of a worthy life in society. The curriculum should be purged of material from the past that has lost its significance, and ideas borrowed from abroad should be suitably adapted to national conditions and needs.

L'Unesco ayant offert à ses Etats membres de les aider à organiser des stages régionaux d'études sur les programme de l'enseignement primaire, le Pakistan a pu de cette manière organiser ce séminaire qui a permis de passer en revue, dans les différents pays représentés, les questions suivantes: le programme primaire, les méthodes pédagogiques, les installations scolaires, les manuels et la formation des maîtres. Les participants ont recommandé que l'on donne aux programmes primaires un caractère autochtone en y incluant ce que les traditions nationales ont de meilleur et d'essentiel, et qu'ils soient rendus conformes aux exigences de la vie dans la société actuelle. Il convient de les purger des notions anciennes qui n'ont plus de sens actuellement, et les idées empruntées à l'étranger doivent être adaptées aux conditions et aux besoins de la nation.

9. Regional Meeting of Representatives of Asian Member States on Primary and Compulsory Education, Karachi, 28 December 1959-9 January 1960. *Report of the Meeting.* Paris, Unesco, 1960. 52 p. (Unesco/ED/173)
10. Réunion régionale de représentants des Etats membres d'Asie sur l'enseignement primaire obligatoire, Karachi, 28 décembre 1959-9 janvier 1960. *Rapport de la réunion.* Paris, 1960. 57 p. (Unesco/ED/173)

Eight years after the regional conference in Bombay, it was felt that a survey of progress accomplished should be undertaken with a view to planning a more comprehensive and better co-ordinated drive for the promotion of primary education in the Asian region. For this purpose, Unesco convened a Meeting of Representatives of Asian Member States which was able to evolve a Working Plan widely known as the Karachi Plan, for the provision of universal and compulsory free primary education in Asia for 1960-1980. Proposals were made for: an expansion of enrolments from an estimated 66 million in 1960 to 237 million in 1980; a reduction of the teacher-pupil ratio to not more than 1:35; substantial salary increases for teachers; the establishment of well-equipped and properly staffed teacher training institutions; and general improvement of the learning environment and the welfare of children.

Huit ans après la Conférence régionale de Bombay (notice 6 ci-dessus) il est apparu nécessaire de faire le point afin de préparer une campagne de plus vaste envergure et mieux coordonnée pour développer l'enseignement primaire en Asie. A cet effet, l'Unesco a organisé une réunion de représentants des Etats membres de la région, qui ont pu mettre au point un programme connu sous le nom de Plan de Karachi en vue d'universaliser pendant la période 1960-80 l'enseignement primaire gratuit et obligatoire dans tous les pays d'Asie. Les propositions ci-après ont été faites: accroître les effectifs d'élèves de 66 millions environ en 1960 à 237 millions en 1980; ramener à 35 le nombre maximal d'élèves par maître; revaloriser sensiblement les traitements du personnel enseignant; ouvrir des établissements de formation pédagogique bien équipés et pourvus de professeurs compétents en nombre suffisant; enfin, améliorer le milieu scolaire et le bien-être des enfants.

11. Unesco. *The needs of Asia in primary education; a plan for the provision of compulsory primary education in the region.* Paris, 1961. 60 p. (Educational studies and documents, no. 41)
12. ______. *Les besoins de l'Asie en matière d'enseignement primaire. Plan pour l'organisation de l'enseignement primaire obligatoire dans la région.* Paris, 1961. 64 p. (Etudes et documents d'éducation, no. 41)

The document incorporates:

1. The resolutions adopted by the Regional Meeting of Representatives of Asian Member States on Primary and Compulsory Education (Karachi, 28 December 1959-9 January 1960), and the resolutions on primary education in Asia passed by the Regional Conference of National Commissions for Unesco in Asia (Manila, 18-23 January 1960);

2. A Working Plan for the provision of universal, compulsory and free primary education in Asia;

3. Recommendations relating to the programme for action at the regional and international level in the field of primary education in Asian countries;

4. Recommendations relating to the programme for action by Member States at the national level for the development of primary education.

It was felt that agencies operating bilateral and multilateral aid programmes in Asia would find this document a useful reference source as it relates to action proposed for the years 1960-1980.

Ce document comprend:

1. La résolution adoptée lors de la Réunion régionale des représentants des Etats membres d'Asie sur l'enseignement primaire obligatoire (Karachi, 28 décembre 1959-9 janvier 1960), et les résolutions sur l'enseignement primaire en Asie adoptées par la Conférence régionale des Commissions nationales pour l'Unesco en Asie (Manille, 18-23 janvier 1960);

2. Un plan de travail pour l'instauration de l'enseignement primaire, universel, gratuit et obligatoire en Asie;

3. Des recommandations relatives au Programme d'action à l'échelon régional et international concernant l'enseignement primaire dans les pays d'Asie;

4. Des recommandations relatives au Programme d'action des Etats membres, à l'échelon national, pour le développement de l'enseignement primaire.

On a pensé que les organismes qui appliquent des programmes bilatéraux ou multilatéraux d'assistance trouveraient ce document utile aux fins de référence du fait qu'il a trait au programme proposé pour toute la période 1960-1980.

13. Meeting of Ministers of Education of Asian Member States Participating in the Karachi Plan, Tokyo, 2-11 April 1962. *Final report of the Meeting [convened by Unesco in association with ECAFE]* Bangkok, 1962. 88 p. (Unesco/ED/192)
14. Réunion des Ministres de l'éducation des Etats membres d'Asie parties au Plan de Karachi, Tokyo, 2-11 avril 1962. *Rapport final de la réunion [convoquée par l'Unesco conjointement avec la CEAEO]* Bangkok, 1962. 88 p. (Unesco/ED/192)

Participants representing 18 Asian Governments met to examine the progress made and the problems faced in implementing the Karachi Plan in relation to overall national plans for economic and social development. Ways of stimulating and co-ordinating the action of co-operating agencies in the extension of primary and compulsory education in Asia were discussed.

Les participants, représentant les gouvernements de 18 pays d'Asie, ont examiné les problèmes rencontrés et les progrès accomplis dans l'exécution du Plan de Karachi par rapport aux plans nationaux de développement économique et social. Ils ont ensuite recherché les moyens de stimuler et de coordonner l'action des organismes coopérants en faveur de la généralisation de l'enseignement primaire obligatoire.

15. Conference of Ministers of Education and Ministers Responsible for Economic Planning of Member States in Asia, Bangkok, 22-29 November 1965. *Final report [of the Conference] convened by Unesco with the co-operation of ECAFE.* Paris, Unesco [1965] 74 p. (Unesco/ED/222)
16. Conférence des Ministres de l'éducation et des Ministres chargés de la planification économique des Etats membres d'Asie, Bangkok, 22-29 novembre 1965. *Rapport final [de la conférence] réunie par l'Unesco en collaboration avec la CEAEO.* Paris, Unesco [1965] 78 p. (Unesco/ED/222)

The Conference, attended by 75 delegates from 16 Member States in Asia, was convened to review progress in the implementation of the Karachi Plan and the resolutions of the Conference of Asian Ministers of Education in Tokyo in 1962. The draft *Asian Model, perspectives of educational development* which was prepared in pursuance of the recommendation of the Tokyo Meeting was presented at the Conference for study and endorsement.

L'objet de cette Conférence, à laquelle ont participé 75 délégués de 16 Etats membres, était de faire le point au sujet de l'exécution du Plan de Karachi et des résolutions adoptées par la Conférence des ministres de l'éducation tenue à Tokyo en 1962. l'avant-projet intitulé *Modèle de développement de l'éducation: Perspectives pour l'Asie*, dont la réunion de Tokyo avait recommandé l'établissement, a été présenté à cette Conférence de Bangkok pour examen et ratification.

17. Unesco. *An Asian model of educational development: perspectives for 1965-80.* [Paris, c1966] 126 p.
18. _____. *Modèle de développement de l'éducation: perspectives pour l'Asie (1965-80).* Paris, 1967. 136 p.

The purpose of this report, published following the Conference of Ministers of Education and Ministers Responsible for Economic Planning of Member States in Asia (15) is to serve as a tool for identifying some of the main quantitative and qualitative problems involved in extending the Karachi Plan to cover all levels and forms of education.

Ce rapport, publié à la suite de la Conférence de Bangkok (voir notice 16), était destiné à faciliter l'identification de certains des principaux problèmes d'ordre quantitatif et qualitatif soulevés par l'élargissement du Plan de Karachi à tous les degrés et types d'enseignement.

19. **Meeting of Experts on Educational Goals, Aims and Objectives in Asia, Tokyo, Japan, 5-11 March 1969.** *Final report.* Tokyo, Japanese National Commission for Unesco, 1969. 20 p. mimeo.

20. ______. *National statements on educational goals, aims and objectives in the Asian countries.* Tokyo, Japanese National Commission for Unesco, 1969. 1 v. (various paging) (MEEAO/Final report/Appendix 6) mimeo.

With a view to providing a sound basis for carrying out educational research, curriculum development and educational planning, a meeting was convened by the Japanese National Commission for Unesco to review national statements on educational goals, aims and objectives presented by Asian countries. The aims of each national system of education, the functions of the different levels and forms of education and the objectives of instruction were analysed. Relevant problems were identified for follow-up study.

Dans le dessein d'offrir aux chercheurs, aux auteurs de programmes scolaires et aux planificateurs un terrain solide pour fonder leurs travaux, la Commission nationale japonaise pour l'Unesco a organisé une réunion régionale d'experts consacrée à l'étude en commun des buts de l'éducation dens divers pays d'Asie. Les participants ont analysé les objectifs de chaque système national d'éducation ainsi que le rôle assigné aux divers degrés et types d'enseignement. Ils ont enfin précisé les problèmes qui restent à étudier dans ce domaine.

21. Third Regional Conference of Ministers of Education and Those Responsible for Economic Planning in Asia, Singapore, 31 May-7 June 1971. *Final report [of the Conference] convened by Unesco in co-operation with ECAFE.* Paris, Unesco, 1971. 91 p. (Unesco/ED/MD/20)

22. Troisième Conférence régionale des ministres de l'éducation et des ministres chargés de la planification économique en Asie, Singapour, 31 mai-7 juin 1971. *Rapport final [de la Conférence] convoquée par l'Unesco avec le concours de la CEAEO.* Paris, Unesco, 1971. 96 p. (Unesco/ED/MD/20)

23. Third Regional Conference of Ministers of Education and Those Responsible for Economic Planning in Asia, Singapore, 31 May-7 June 1971. *Growth and change: perspectives of education in Asia.* Paris, Unesco, 1973. 85 p. (Educational studies and documents, no. 7)

24. Troisième Conférence régionale des ministres de l'éducation et des ministres chargés de la planification économique en Asie, Singapour, 31 mai-7 juin 1971. *Perspectives de l'éducation en Asie: expansion et transformation.* Paris, Unesco, 1973. 94 p. (Etudes et documents d'éducation, no. 7)

The Conference reviewed the situation of education in the Asian Member States in the light of the recommendations of the Second Regional Conference (Bangkok, 1965). The Conference was informed by the delegates that some of the countries have already achieved universal first-level education and plan to extend its duration to nine years. It appeared that while not all countries in the region would achieve universal primary education by 1980, a substantial number would reach that goal. Special attention was given to qualitative improvement of education through innovation, to science and technical education, and to rural education.

Documents 23 and 24 were published by Unesco for wider circulation upon request of the Conference. It draws its material from the debates and the working papers presented to the Conference.

La Conférence a tracé le panorama de l'éducation dans les Etats d'Asie membres de l'Unesco à la lumière des recommandations de la Deuxième Conférence régionale de Bangkok (1965). Les délégués ont signalé que certains pays avaient déjà réalisé une scolarisation totale au niveau du premier degré, dont ils envisageaient de porter la durée à neuf années. Il est apparu que si les pays de la région ne pourraient pas atteindre tous cet objectif d'ici

à 1980, bon nombre d'entre eux y parviendraient. Les délégués se sont longuement penchés sur la question de l'amélioration de l'éducation par l'innovation, sur l'enseignement scientifique et technique et sur l'enseignement rural.

Les documents 23 et 24 ci-dessus ont été publiés par l'Unesco afin d'être, comme l'a demandé la Conférence, largement diffusés. Leur teneur est empruntée aux débats et aux documents de travail présentés à la Conférence.

25. *Bulletin of the Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia.* Bangkok, 1966-.
26. *Bulletin du Bureau régional de l'Unesco pour l'éducation en Asie.* Bangkok, 1966-.

The *Bulletin*, which devotes each issue to a specific theme of current interest, brings together contributions by educators and scholars presenting their thoughts on educational change and reform or an account of how they see the progress of educational reforms in their respective countries. Information on primary education in the *Bulletin* may be traced through an index issued every two years. Originally issued twice a year, but starting with 1973, the *Bulletin* will come out once a year in the month of June.

Ce *Bulletin*, dont chaque livraison est consacrée à un thème d'actualité, rassemble des articles dus à des éducateurs et à des spécialistes qui présentent leurs idées sur l'évolution et la réforme de l'enseignement ou rendent compte du progrès de cette réforme dans leurs pays respectifs. Les informations relatives à l'enseignement primaire peuvent être aisément retrouvées en consultant l'index qui est publié tous les deux ans (en anglais seulement). Paraissant à l'origine deux fois par an, ce *Bulletin* est annuel à partir du numéro de juin 1973.

27. *Prospects in education, a quarterly bulletin.* Paris, Unesco, 1969-.
28. *Perspectives de l'éducation, revue trimestrielle.* Paris, Unesco, 1969-.

Provides educators, educational institutions and teaching personnel with articles and information from world-wide sources. Designed to help teachers - especially at the primary level - by offering them an insight into educational problems and solutions in other countries. In the first issue in 1969, an article appeared on "The duration and content of primary education in Asia" by A.R. Dawood.

Cette revue destinée aux éducateurs, aux établissements d'enseignement et aux enseignants eux-mêmes, leur apporte des articles et des éléments d'information émanant du monde entier. Elle veut aider les enseignants - spécialement ceux du premier degré - en leur offrant des éléments d'information et des commentaires sur les problèmes d'éducation (et leurs solutions) qui se posent dans les autres pays. Le premier numéro, paru en 1969, contient un article de A.R. Dawood sur la durée et le contenu de l'enseignement primaire en Asie.

29. Unesco. Regional Office for Education in Asia. *Progress of education in Asia: a statistical review.* Bangkok, 1969. 207 p.
30. ______. ______. ______ : *statistical supplement.* Bangkok, 1972. 187 p.
31. ______. Bureau régional de l'Unesco pour l'éducation en Asie. *Progrès de l'éducation en Asie: étude statistique.* Bangkok, 1969. 207 p.

Present statistical data for regional aggregates for the period 1950-1969, and up to 1970 for individual countries. Under "first level of education" information is given on the Karachi Plan and its implementation, educational wastage or retention ratios, transition from first to second level, enrolment by grade, number of schools and other related items.

Cet ouvrage présente des statistiques (agrégats régionaux) pour la période 1950-1969, et jusqu'en 1970 pour quelques pays. Sous la rubrique "enseignement du premier degré", on trouve des données numériques concernent le Plan de Karachi et son exécution, les taux de rétention et de déperdition scolaire, les passages du premier au second degré, les effectifs par année d'étude, le nombre d'établissements, etc.

32. *Unesco statistical yearbook / Annuaire statistique de l'Unesco.* Paris, 1963-. 9 v.

Statistics related to educational, scientific and cultural activities of each Member State are given. Under "Education" statistical information is given for compulsory education and range of education at first level of education; enrolment, institutions, teachers and other related data are also given for the different levels of education.

Cet annuaire a trait aux activités d'ordre éducatif, scientifique et culturel de chaque Etat membre. Dans le chapitre "Education" figurent des renseignements statistiques sur l'enseignement obligatoire et la durée de l'enseignement du premier degré, ainsi que sur les effectifs, les établissements, le personnel enseignant, etc. des divers degrés.

33. Bennett, Nicholas. "Primary education in rural communities: an investment in ignorance?" *Journal of Development Studies.* London, Frank Cars and Co. /1970? 12 p./ Reprint.

The author states that the teaching of the 3Rs in the primary school was emphasized in classrooms two thousand years ago and still applies throughout the world for both city and rural schools. A number of questions are posed in an effort to examine whether primary education in the rural areas satisfies the social and economic needs of the community and the country and calls attention to the lack of research on the subject necessary for planning and policy making. Includes some statistics for primary teachers in Asia.

L'auteur rappelle d'abord que l'enseignement du rudiment (lecture, écriture et calcul), déjà à l'honneur dans les écoles primaires il y a deux mille ans, l'est toujours aujourd'hui dans les écoles rurales comme dans les écoles urbaines. Il se demande ensuite si l'enseignement primaire rural répond actuellement aux besoins sociaux et économiques des communautés et des pays, et signale que les recherches sur lesquelles les planificateurs et les responsables de l'enseignement pourraient fonder leurs décisions sont encore très insuffisantes. L'étude comprend quelques statistiques sur les instituteurs primaires en Asie.

34. INNOTECH Regional Seminar on Approaches to Effective and Economical Delivery of Mass Primary Education, Singapore, 19-23 February 1973. *Final report* /Singapore, INNOTECH (SEAMEO Centre for Educational Innovation and Technology) 1973/ 1 v. (various paging) draft, mimeo.

"A computerized guess estimates that it would take about 180 years to educate all the children of Southeast Asia today using conventional approaches and existing facilities. The problem becomes overwhelming when other factors such as ever-growing population, the explosion of knowledge, the manpower needs for national development and out-dated curricula, and the like are taken into consideration". ...The concern of the Seminar was how to provide primary education for the majority of children in the Asian region, more than half of whom currently are either denied the opportunity for education or have to forfeit this opportunity sooner than they should.

Les calculs les plus sûrs indiquent qu'il faudrait environ 180 années pour instruire tous les enfants qui vivent actuellement en Asie si l'on utilisait les méthodes traditionnelles et l'infrastructure existante. Mais le problème prend une ampleur démesurée si l'on fait entrer en ligne de compte divers autres facteurs: la croissance incessante de la population, l'"explosion" des connaissances, les besoins de spécialistes pour assurer le développement national, le caractère périmé des programmes scolaires, etc. Les participants se sont donc préoccupés de rechercher comment on pourrait assurer une scolarité primaire à la majorité des enfants d'Asie, dont la plupart sont privés de la possibilité d'aller à l'école ou doivent la quitter plus tôt qu'ils ne le devraient.

INDIA / INDE

35. Saiyidain, K.G., J.P. Naik and S. Abid Husain. *Compulsory education in India and progress of compulsory education in India (1951-1966)*, by Pandit Gopesh Kumar Ojha. Delhi, Universal Publications, 1966. 406 p.

36. Chaurasia, Gulab and Gopi Nath Kaul. "Recent trends and developments in primary and secondary education in India", *The International Review of Education* XII(3):345-354, 1967.

Ways of improving and expanding school education, obtaining adequate financial support and striving for maximum utilization of investment in education are reported.

Questions traitées: comment améliorer et étendre l'enseignement scolaire, obtenir des moyens financiers plus importants et rendre le plus rentables possible les investissements consacrés à l'éducation.

37. Chickermane, D.V., and M.G. Mali. *The single-teacher school; a study.* Gargoti, Maharastra, G.K. Institute of Rural Education Shri Mouni Vidyapeeth, 1968. 80 p. (Studies and research in rural education).

Nearly 40% of the schools in the Indian Union are single-teacher schools consisting of Grades I-IV, and as has been pointed out, they are a neglected part of primary education. This study identifies the problems of single-teacher schools in order to evolve a work plan for improving their conditions.

Près de 40% des écoles de l'Union indienne sont des écoles à maître unique ne comprenant que les quatre premières années d'étude; elles forment un secteur négligé dans l'enseignement du premier degré. L'auteur examine les problèmes propres à ces écoles en vue d'élaborer un plan d'action pour améliorer leurs conditions de fonctionnement.

38. Eleventh National Seminar on Elementary Education, 7-9 April 1972, Delhi. *Report on primary education.* New Delhi, National Council of Educational Research and Training, 1972. 68 p.

The Seminar explored ways and means of realizing universal primary education (Standards I-V) by 1975.

Ce séminaire a été consacré à la recherche des moyens permettant de généraliser l'enseignement primaire (cinq années d'étude) pour 1975.

39. Grover, Lalita. "Universalisation of primary education in rural areas - problems and prospects...", *Manpower Journal* III(1):47-78, April-June, 1967.

"A case study at district level outlining a perspective plan for the area".

"Etude de cas au niveau d'un district, esquissant un plan de généralisation de l'enseignement primaire dans ce secteur".

40. Institute of Applied Manpower Research. *Social-cultural demand for elementary education - trend based projections for enrolment in primary and middle classes in the year 1976 by states and sex and an analysis of cost*, prepared by P.N. Mathur. New Delhi, 1965. xiv, 130 p. (Manpower aspects of educational development; I.A.M.R. working paper no. 10/1965)

INDIA / INDE (continued / suite)

41. Kapahi, D.A. *A study of elementary education in selected schools in the Philippines and implications for primary education in the state of Uttar Pradesh (India), submitted to the Sixth Institute for Key Educators, 13 August-25 November 1970.* Quezon City, Asian Institute for Teacher Educators, 1970. 96 p. typescript (dactylographié)
42. *The Rural Education Review (a half yearly Journal Devoted to Studies and Researches in Rural Education).* District Kolhagur, Maharashtra, G.K. Institute of Rural Education. Half-yearly: March, September.
43. Seminar on Primary and Work-Oriented Education, New Delhi, 9-11 November 1970. *[Reports and papers of the Seminar]* New Delhi, National Council of Educational Research and Training [1970-71] 3 v. (International Education Year)

The Seminar took stock of the trends of development of primary education in the 1960s and formulated programmes and policies for its improvement in the 1970s. The areas covered include pre-school education, Gandhian values in education, work-experience, science education, curriculum at the first level, language teaching, programmed learning, evaluation, education of handicapped children, training of talented teachers, and financing.

Ce séminaire a pris note des tendances du développement de l'enseignement primaire au cours des années 60, et tracé les grandes lignes et les orientations du progrès dans les années 70. Les secteurs envisagés ont été les suivants: l'enseignement pré-scolaire, les valeurs gandhiennes dans l'éducation, l'expérience du travail concret, l'enseignement des sciences, le programme du premier degré, l'enseignement des langues, l'enseignement programmé, le contrôle des connaissances, l'éducation des enfants diminués, la formation des maîtres et le financement de l'éducation.

JAPAN / JAPON

44. Japanese National Commission for Unesco. *The making of compulsory education in Japan.* Tokyo, 1958. 72 p.

This study is a historical review, tracing the introduction of compulsory education in Japan to the beginning of the Meiji Era (1868-1912).

Etude de caractère historique, qui situe l'introduction de l'enseignement obligatoire au Japon au début de l'ère du Meiji (1868-1912).

45. Japan. Central Council for Education. *The basic guidelines for the reform of elementary and secondary education.* Tokyo, Planning and Research Department, Ministry of Education, 1970. 31 p.

The guidelines for reform call for developing a school system adapted to different stages of human growth, improving and maintaining the standard of public education and equality of educational opportunity, and reforming the curricula in accordance with characteristics of school level.

Les grandes orientations d'une réforme de l'enseignement primaire et secondaire au Japon sont les suivantes: restructurer le système scolaire de façon qu'il soit mieux adapté aux diverses étapes de la croissance de l'individu; améliorer le niveau de l'enseignement public et assurer l'égalité des possibilités d'accès à l'éducation; refondre les programmes en fonction des caractéristiques nouvelles des niveaux scolaires.

KHMER REPUBLIC / REPUBLIQUE KHMERE

46. Khmère, République. Ministère de l'éducation nationale. Inspection du département. *L'enseignement primaire en République*

KHMER REPUBLIC / REPUBLIQUE KHMERE (continued / suite)

Khmère, par Ho Tong Ho /Phnom Penh/ Inspection du département, Ministère de l'éducation nationale, 1972. 36 p. mimeo. (multicopié)

The system of primary education is described with stress on the objectives and the support given to the first level of education.

L'auteur décrit le système d'enseignement primaire de la République khmère; il en commente les objectifs et décrit les mesures prises pour aider à son développement.

KOREA, Republic of / COREE, République de

47. Kim, Choong-Heng. *A study of the Korean long-term educational plan for primary education with specific reference to the Karachi Plan, submitted to the Seventh Institute for Key Teacher Educators, 4 March-8 May 1971.* Quezon City, Asian Institute for Teacher Educators, 1971. 55 p.
48. Korea. Central Education Research Institute. *A study of compulsory education in Korea: the utilisation of physical facilities, predominant teaching methods, scheduling patterns and the drop-out* /Seoul, Ministry of Science and Technology, 1968/ 99 p. (MOST-USOM Research Project/TF 66-18)

LAOS

49. Fourteenth National Annual Conference of Primary School Inspectors, Sayaboury, 7-17 February 1972. *Proceedings*, compiled by Community Education Branch, USAID/Education Division. Sayaboury, 1972. 149 p.

Progress reports on primary education from each province, papers and discussions on projects and special topics, and the reports and recommendations of the Committees for the Revision of Primary Regulations and the Primary School Lao Language Curriculum are presented.

Ce recueil comprend des rapports sur l'évolution de l'enseignement dans chacune des provinces du Laos, des documents et des comptes-rendus sur divers projets et thèmes spéciaux, ainsi que les rapports et recommandations du Comité pour la révision du règlement de l'enseignement primaire et du Comité pour le programme de langue laotienne à l'école primaire.

50. Khamphao Phonekeo. *Education in the rural environment in Laos.* Vientiane /Department of Primary and Adult Education, Ministry of Education, 1971/ 13 p. mimeo. (multicopié)

The author points out that in Laos, education in the rural environment implies mainly primary education and that education in the rural environment comes first to mind because the country is essentially rural. The 1962 Education Reform Act is presented describing how it seeks to enrol the greatest number of children possible in their own native villages.

L'auteur signale qu'au Laos, l'éducation en milieu rural est presque exclusivement le fait de l'enseignement primaire, et que ce problème se pose immédiatement parce que le pays est essentiellement rural. Il commente la Loi de 1962 sur la réforme de l'enseignement, et montre comment ce texte vise à scolariser le plus possible d'enfants dans le village où ils résident.

MALAYSIA / MALAISIE

51. *Journal of the Ministry of Education, Malaysia.* Kuala Lumpur, Federal Inspectorate of Schools, Ministry of Education.

Issued quarterly; contains articles about primary education and teaching ideas useful for the classroom teacher. In English and Bahasa Malaysia.

Cette revue trimestrielle, rédigée en anglais et en Bahasa Malaysia, contient des articles sur l'enseignement primaire et des conseils de pédagogie pratique.

NEPAL

52. Nepal. Ministry of Education. Planning, Statistics and Research Division. *Development of primary education in Nepal.* Kathmandu, 1967. 22 p.

A report of the development and present status of primary education in Nepal including activities in the teacher training and curriculum development programmes.

Ce rapport sur le développement de l'enseignement primaire au Népal et sa situation actuelle traite en praticulier des activités de formation des maîtres et de la mise au point du programme scolaire.

PAKISTAN

53. Khan, Namdar. "Some aspects of planning for primary education in Pakistan", *Pakistan Educational Review* (1):56-80, January 1970.

A report on the state of primary education - its problems, objectives, failures, achievements and future programmes. The report and the statistical figures indicate the need for prompt and sufficient support for primary education if it is to contribute to the self-sustaining economic growth of the country.

Rapport sur la situation actuelle de l'enseignement primaire, ses objectifs, ses problèmes, ses échecs et ses réussites, et ses programmes futurs. L'article, étoffé de statistiques, montre la nécessité d'apporter d'urgence un appui suffisant à l'enseignement primaire si l'on veut qu'il contribue à la croissance économique autonome du pays.

PHILIPPINES

54. *The Filipino Teacher.* 49 Quezon Blvd., Quezon City, Monthly (except May and June) (Mensuel, sauf mai et juin).
55. *The Modern Teacher (In the Grade School).* P.O. Box 1504, Manila, The Modern Teacher Magazine. Monthly (Mensuel).
56. *The Philippine Journal of Education.* 161, 15th Ave., Cubao, Quezon City, Monthly (Mensuel).

These journals contain professional reading for teachers with emphasis on primary education. Articles sharing ideas for teaching, preparation and use of teaching materials in the primary school classroom are featured regularly.

Ces trois revues de caractère technique sont destinés aux enseignants, particulièrement aux instituteurs primaires. Chaque numéro contient régulièrement des articles sur la pédagogie pratique, la préparation du matériel d'enseignement et son emploi dans les classes primaires.

SINGAPORE / SINGAPOUR

57. *Pendidek/Educator.* Kay Siang Road, Singapore 10, EDUCATOR, Ministry of Education.

The journal contains articles useful to the primary school teacher.

Cette revue contient des articles utiles aux instituteurs primaires.

THAILAND / THAILANDE

58. *The Journal of the Education Society of Thailand (Nitayasarn Soon Suksa)* 18(1):4-108, January-September 1972. In Thai (en thai)

This issue is devoted to primary education. Articles cover problems, wastage, curriculum and life, and teacher training.

Ce numéro de la Revue de la Société pédagogique de Thailande (rédigé en thai) est consacré à l'enseignement primaire. Les articles traitent des sujets suivants: les problèmes propres à ce degré, la déperdition scolaire, le programme scolaire et la vie, et la formation des instituteurs.

59. Thailand. Department of General Education. Division of Compulsory Education. *The effectiveness of compulsory education.* Bangkok, 1973. 119 p. (Research report no. 8) In Thai (en thai)

A study to find out how well compulsory education has met its objectives. The research reveals the problems and the conditions of compulsory education.

Les auteurs s'efforcent de déterminer dans quelle mesure l'obligation scolaire a atteint ses objectifs. Ils analysent les problèmes que pose cette obligation et les conditions qu'elle requiert.

60. _____. Ministry of Education. Department of Elementary and Adult Education. *Report on the evaluation of: Part I. The extension of compulsory education porject Samud Songkram and Puket (1963-1970), Part II. The improvement of model elementary school projects, in education regions 5, 7 (1968-1970).* Bangkok, 1972. 15, 6 p. mimeo. (multicopié).

CURRICULUM / PROGRAMME SCOLAIRE

61. Regional Seminar on Primary School Curriculum for South Asia, Karachi, 1956. *Report and recommendations.* Karachi, Government of Pakistan Press, 1956. 24 p.

The primary school curricula in participating countries were reviewed and examined. Recommendations called for making the curriculum indigenous, including what is best and vital in the national tradition and relevant to the needs of the child. The curriculum should be purged of material that have become out of date, and new and constructive ideas from abroad should be adapted to national needs.

Les participants à ce stage régional ont passé en revue les programmes de l'enseignement primaire dans leurs pays respectifs. Dans leurs recommandations, ils ont demandé que l'on réforme ces programmes pour leur donner un caractère autochtone, que l'on y incorpore ce qu'il y a de meilleur et d'essentiel dans les traditions nationales et d'approprié aux besoins de l'enfant, que l'on élimine tous les éléments aujourd'hui périées, et que les idées constructives empruntées à l'étranger soient adaptées aux exigences nationales.

62. Working Group on Curriculum and Allied Matters, Bangkok, 19-23 April, 1965. *Curriculum, methods of teaching, evaluation and textbooks in primary schools in Asia: report.* Bangkok, Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia, 1966. 162 p.

The Working Group recommended: (1) that the use of improved curricula, methods of teaching, teaching aids and textbooks, and evaluation in teacher training programmes be emphasized; (2) that councils for curriculum development be established in each country; (3) that each country engaged in curriculum development adopt educational principles and contents appropriate to its social and economic development; (4) that bibliographical and abstracting services, including textbook or curriculum laboratories, be set up to provide information on studies and research on curriculum and allied matters.

Ce groupe de travail a recommandé: (1) l'amélioration des programmes, des méthodes et du matériel pédagogiques, des manuels et des systèmes d'évaluation utilisés dans les écoles normales; (2) la création dans chaque pays d'un Conseil pour l'amélioration des programmes scolaires; (3) l'adoption dans chaque pays qui travaille à réformer ses programmes scolaires de principes pédagogiques et de contenus éducatifs appropriés à son niveau de développement économique et social; (4) l'institution de services bibliographiques et de comptes rendus (y compris de services s'occupant des manuels et des programmes scolaires) capables de fournir des renseignements sur les études et recherches relatives aux programmes scolaires et aux questions connexes.

63. Regional Training Course on the Improvement of Primary School Curriculum and Teaching Methods in Asia, Tokyo, 8 November-19 December 1966. *Final report [and working papers]* Tokyo, Japanese National Commission for Unesco, 1966. 1 v. (various paging).

A substantial part of the course covered the role of education in the social and economic development of a country and the primary school curriculum and teaching methods. The course provided opportunity to discuss and study problems and practical steps for the improvement of the primary school curriculum and teaching methods as well.

Ce cours régional de formation a été dans une large mesure consacré au rôle de l'éducation dans le développement économique et social, ainsi qu'à l'école primaire, à son programme et à ses méthodes. Les participants ont étudié les problèmes qui se posent à cet égard et les mesures pratiques à prendre pour améliorer les programmes et les méthodes pédagogiques.

64. Educational Research Workshop on Problems Related to School Curriculum in Asia, Tokyo. *Final report.* Tokyo, National Institute for Educational Research in Asia, 1967-. 4 v.

Reports of four workshops organized since 1967 to examine all aspects of curriculum construction as part of the joint research project, *A comparative study of curriculum development at the stage of elementary education in the Asian countries* (see item 66).

Ces quatre volumes rendent compte de quatre sessions de travail organisées depuis 1967 pour examiner tous les aspects de l'élaboration des programmes scolaires dans le cadre d'un programme conjoint de recherches intitulé, *Etude comparative de la mise au point des programmes scolaires du premier degré dans les pays d'Asie* (voir notice 66).

65. Regional Workshop on Research in Curriculum Evaluation Assisted by Unesco, Bangkok, 9-16 September 1968. *Final report.* Bangkok Institute for Child Study, 1968. 186 p.

The Workshop was organized to design curriculum evaluation surveys with special reference to the language areas of the curriculum and appropriate to the needs of participating countries; to prepare guidelines for national institutions to carry out research in curriculum evaluation; and to examine similar studies analysing the effectiveness of their design and execution.

Ce stage avait les objectifs suivants: a) préparer, à l'intention des pays participants, les plans d'enquêtes d'évaluation sur les programmes scolaires, et spécialement des parties de ces programmes concernant l'enseignement des langues; b) formuler à l'intention des institutions nationales compétentes les principes à suivre pour procéder à l'évaluation des programmes scolaires; c) examiner les études de ce genre déjà effectuées afin d'évaluer l'efficacité de leur conception et de leur exécution.

66. Unesco-NIER Regional Programme for Educational Research in Asia. *Asian study on curriculum; comparative study of curriculum development at the stage of elementary education in Asian countries.* Tokyo, National Institute for Educational Research, 1970. 3 v.

A study of the primary curriculum in 15 Asian countries. Volume I covers the following topics: mechanics of curriculum development, objectives of elementary education, organization of the school programme, textbooks, instructional aids and materials, schemes for pupil evaluation and procedures for curriculum evaluation and revision. Volumes II and III include the national reports of Afghanistan, Ceylon, Republic of China, India, Indonesia, Iran, Japan, Republic of Korea, Laos, Malaysia, Nepal, Pakistan, Philippines, Thailand and the Republic of Viet-Nam.

Etude des programmes de l'enseignement du premier degré dans 15 pays d'Asie. Le Tome I passe en revue les mécanismes d'élaboration des programmes, les

objectifs de l'enseignement primaire, la structure des systèmes scolaires, les manuels, les auxiliaires et le matériel pédagogiques, les systèmes de contrôle des connaissances et les méthodes de révision des programmes eux-mêmes. Les Tomes II et III contiennent les rapports nationaux présentés par les pays suivants: Afghanistan, Ceylan, République de Chine, République de Corée, Inde, Indonésie, Iran, Japon, Laos, Malaisie, Népal, Pakistan, Philippines, Thailande et République du Viêt-Nam.

67. Unesco. *Science education at the elementary and secondary level in Asia: a survey of status and developments in 1970*, by Stephen S. Winter. Paris, 1971. 62 p. (SC/WS/30)

The survey shows a great diversity in the content and design of the science programmes as well as in the quality of science teaching in elementary schools of 21 Asian States. The importance of science lessons in the early grades is generally accepted; only three countries fail to include science instruction starting with Grade I. Annex I presents "Statements of objectives for elementary science".

Cette enquête a révélé une grande diversité quant au contenu et à la structure des programmes de sciences ainsi qu'en ce qui concerne la qualité de l'enseignement des sciences dans les écoles primaires de 21 pays d'Asie. L'importance de commencer l'enseignement des sciences dès les petites classes est généralement reconnue: dans trois pays seulement, le programme de première année primaire ne comprend pas de leçons de sciences. L'annexe I de ce rapport présente des "Enoncés des objectifs de l'enseignement des sciences au niveau élémentaire".

68. Regional Workshop on Unesco/UNICEF-Assisted Projects in Science Education in Asia, Bangkok, 4-18 November 1968. *Planning for science teaching improvement in Asian schools: report of a Regional Workshop*. Bangkok, Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia, 1969. 34, xxv p.

69. Groupe d'étude régional sur les projets assistés par l'Unesco et l'UNICEF dans le domaine de l'enseignement des sciences en Asie, Bangkok, 4-18 novembre 1968. *Planification de l'amélioration de l'enseignement des sciences en Asie, rapport final*. Bangkok, Bureau régional de l'Unesco pour l'éducation en Asie, 1969. 39, xii p.

Proceeding from an analysis of the existing programmes, the Workshop centred its attention on the need for a fundamental reform in science education in schools and outlined the main elements which such reform should encompass. The deliberations of the Workshop were therefore expressed in the form of certain principles which are particularly relevant to the conditions in the Asian region, and in specific recommendations relating to the existing projects.

A partir d'une analyse des programmes actuellement en vigueur, les membres de ce groupe d'étude se sont attachés à montrer la nécessité d'une réforme profonde de l'enseignement des sciences, et à indiquer les principaux éléments qu'une telle réforme devrait comporter. Leurs délibérations ont donc été exprimées sous la forme de certains principes particulièrement adaptés aux conditions régnant en Asie, et de recommandations spécifiques concernant les divers projets en cours.

70. "Science education in the Asian Region / L'enseignement des sciences en Asie", *Bulletin of the Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia / Bulletin du Bureau régional de l'Unesco pour l'éducation en Asie*, 4(1): March/mars 1969.

Three regional projects and science programmes in 16 Asian countries, and four countries outside the Asian region are described.

Ce numéro du Bulletin décrit trois projets régionaux ainsi que les programmes d'enseignement des sciences en vigueur dans seize pays d'Asie et dans quatre pays extérieurs à cette région.

71. Primary Science Planning Workshop, Manila, 24-28 June 1969. *Report of the primary science planning workshop, convened by ... the SEAMES Regional Centre for Education in Science and Mathematics, Penang, Malaysia, in collaboration with the Department of Education, Manila, Republic of the Philippines.* Penang, RECSAM, 1969. 84 p. (P5/SCMS/17) mimeo. (multicopié).

The Workshop met to study the planning of courses for training educational leaders and elementary teacher educators in order to enable them to train and retrain teachers in their countries to implement new science curricula. The following activities were listed as necessary for the planning of such courses: examining work done by other countries to improve elementary science education, study of appropriate means of adapting published work, developing new materials, study and practice of modern teaching methods along with study of child learning theories, and appropriate means of evaluating instruction.

L'objet de ce stage était d'étudier la façon d'organiser, à l'intention des administrateurs de l'enseignement et des professeurs d'école normale primaire, des stages où ces derniers apprendraient à former et à recycler les instituteurs primaires de leurs pays respectifs en vue d'assurer une application correcte des nouveaux programmes d'enseignement des sciences. Les participants ont estimé que pour organiser ces stages, il était nécessaire dans chaque pays d'analyser d'abord l'expérience des autres pays dans ce domaine, de rechercher les meilleurs moyens d'adapter les travaux déjà publiés, de mettre au point des matériaux nouveaux, d'étudier et d'expérimenter les méthodes pédagogiques modernes et les théories de l'apprentissage chez l'enfant, et de rechercher enfin les moyens appropriés d'évaluer l'enseignement dispensé.

72. Asian Regional Workshop on the Progress of Integrated Science Teaching, Manila, 3-17 August 1970. *Integrated science teaching in the Asian region; final report.* Bangkok, Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia, 1971. 44 p.

The Workshop discussed the concept of integrated science teaching, the various approaches to science teaching in the first eight or nine years of schooling appropriate to the needs of countries in the Asian region, and the ways in which suitable programmes of integrated science could be devised, tested and implemented. Preparation of teachers for integrated science teaching and physical facilities needed were also considered in the plan for future action.

Les participants ont étudié le concept d'enseignement intégré des sciences, les diverses méthodes d'enseignement des sciences à utiliser au cours des huit ou neuf premières années de scolarité en fonction des besoins des pays de la région, et les techniques d'élaboration, de mise à l'essai et d'application de programmes appropriés. Le plan d'action proposé traite aussi de la formation à donner aux enseignants et des installations matérielles à mettre en place pour assurer un tel enseignement.

73. Educational Research Workshop on Science Teaching in Asia, 13 February-12 March 1971, Tokyo. *Final report.* Tokyo, National Institute for Educational Research, 1971. 82 p. (Unesco-NIER Regional Programme for Educational Research in Asia).

The Workshop reviewed efforts being made in Asian countries to modernize science education at the elementary stage. How to interest children in scientific activities was demonstrated through a simulated laboratory experiment on the "phenomenon of dissolution".

Les participants ont passé en revue les efforts déployés par les pays d'Asie pour moderniser l'enseignement des sciences dans le premier degré. La simulation d'une expérience sur le phénomène chimique de dissolution a permis de montrer comment on peut intéresser les enfants à la recherche scientifique.

74. Educational Research Workshops on Mathematics Teaching at First Level Education in Asia, Tokyo, National Institute for

Educational Research 14 October-16 November 1968; and 18 October-7 November 1969. *Final reports.* Tokyo, National Institute for Educational Research, 1969, 1970. 2 v. (Unesco-NIER Programme for Educational Research in Asia)

Reports of Workshops that were convened with a view to developing mathematics education in Asia, with particular regard to new contents and their placement, development of structure of subject matter, and instructional materials and methods. Also discussed was a research design for a common project which will identify necessary measures to be taken in re-training mathematics teachers in Asian countries.

Ces deux volumes sont les rapports de deux stages organisés pour développer l'enseignement des mathématiques en Asie, spécialement en ce qui concerne le nouveau contenu de cette discipline, sa réorganisation interne, sa pédagogie et le matériel nécessaire à son enseignement. Les participants ont aussi discuté d'un projet conjoint de recherches visant à déterminer les mesures à prendre pour recycler les professeurs de mathématiques en Asie.

75. Asian Experts Seminar on the Development of Science/Mathematics Concepts in Children, Bangkok, 29 May-10 June 1972. *Final report of the Seminar convened by Unesco and UNICEF in association with CEDO.* Bangkok, Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia, 1972. 102 p.

The Seminar, attended by specialists from 19 Asian countries, had the following objectives: to share knowledge of work in the field of concept development in science and mathematics in children from 8 to 12 years of age, to relate such knowledge to curriculum development in science and mathematics, to identify learning problems encountered in curriculum development projects in the Asian region, to develop plans and methodologies for research in concept development and to consider ways by which findings of research may be implemented.

Des spécialistes venus de 19 pays d'Asie ont participé à ce séminaire, avec les objectifs suivants: mettre en commun leurs connaissances touchant les travaux relatifs au développement des concepts scientifiques et mathématiques chez les enfants âgés de 3 à 12 ans, appliquer ces connaissances à l'élaboration des programmes de sciences et de mathématiques, identifier les problèmes d'apprentissage rencontrés.

76. Ro, Chai Woo. *New concepts in elementary school art education and their implications for art education in primary teacher training institutions [a study] submitted to the Eighth Institute for Key Teacher Educators, 6 July-5 October 1972.* Quezon City, Asian Institute for Teacher Educators, 1972. 75 [28] p. typescript.

INDIA / INDE

77. Chickermane, D.V. "A monograph on the ungraded school", *The Rural Education Review* II(4):1-25, September 1972.
78. India. National Council of Educational Research and Training. *Series in curriculum development.* New Delhi, 1970. 4 v.

Contents: v.1. Objectives of primary education; v.2. An annotated bibliography on school curriculum; v.3. What is curriculum; v.4. Formulating objectives of primary education.

Contenu des quatre volumes: vol.1: Objectifs de l'enseignement primaire; vol.2: Bibliographie annotée relative aux problèmes des programmes scolaires; vol.3: Qu'est-ce qu'un programme scolaire; vol.4: Comment formuler les objectifs de l'enseignement primaire.

IRAN

79. Iran. Ministry of Education. General Department of Planning and Studies. Bureau of Curriculum Making. *School structure, educational aims and the curriculum of the elementary and secondary schools in Iran.* Tehran, 1970. 44 p. mimeo. (Publication no. 14).
80. ______. ______. *The curriculum of primary schools in Iran,* translated /into English/ in the Centre for Research and Curriculum Development. /Teheran/ 1972. 108 p. mimeo. (Publication no. 26).

Following His Imperial Majesty's Charter for a comprehensive change in the old educational system and the curricula of primary and secondary schools, the Council for Educational Planning approved twenty principles to be taken into account in the implementation of the new system. Primary education should be divided into two stages of 5-3 and should be free and provided for all children of 6 to 14 years old. The subjects to be included in the curriculum, the content of the syllabi to be prepared and the time allotted for each syllabi are presented in this document.

A la suite d'un édit impérial portant réforme de l'ancien système d'éducation et des programmes du premier et du second degrés, le Conseil de planification éducative a adopté vingt principes qu'il convient de respecter dans la mise en vigueur du système nouveau. Le premier degré sera divisé en deux cycles de 5 et 3 années respectivement; il sera gratuit et ouvert à tous les enfants âgés de 6 à 14 ans. Ces deux documents indiquent les matières qui doivent figurer dans le programme, le contenu des plans d'étude à élaborer et le temps à consacrer à chaque matière.

JAPAN / JAPON

81. Iijima, Atsumobu and others. "An experimental study on programmed learning, an example of actual guidance in arithmetic for primary school pupils", *Research Bulletin of the National Institute for Educational Research* (9):67-78, November 1967.
82. Japan. Unesco National Commission. *Guidebook for the teaching of arithmetic in elementary schools in Japan.* Tokyo, 1972. 96 p.

Discusses for each grade the characteristics of arithmetic teaching, its aims, and the construction and development of content of study areas.

Ce manuel examine, pour chaque classe primaire, les caractéristiques et les buts de l'enseignement de l'arithmétique, ainsi que la mise au point et l'ordonnance du contenu pour chaque question étudiée.

83. Japan. Unesco National Commission. *Guide book for the teaching of science in elementary schools in Japan.* Tokyo, 1972. 104 p. (MEJ 6811).

Covers objectives and content for Grades I-VI, with guidelines for planning for teaching and activities for each grade.

Ce manuel expose les objectifs et le contenu de l'enseignement des sciences pour les six années primaires, avec des conseils pédagogiques et des suggestions touchant les activités pratiques appropriées à chaque classe.

84. Japan. Unesco National Commission. *Revised course of study for elementary schools in Japan.* Tokyo, 1969. 226 p. (MEJ 6744).

Covers the following subjects: Japanese language, social studies, arithmetic, science, music, arts and handicrafts, homemaking, physical education, moral education and special activities. Principles and major problems considered in the revision of the course of study are also explained.

JAPAN / JAPON (continued / suite)

Ce programme révisé comprend les matières suivantes: langue japonaise, études sociales, arithmétique, sciences, musique, dessin et travaux manuels, économie domestique, éducation physique, éducation morale et activités spéciales. On explique aussi les principaux problèmes étudiés et les principes appliqués au cours de la révision de ce programme.

MALAYSIA / MALAISIE

85. Seminar on Current Developments and New Emphases in School Curricula, 4-7 January 1965, Kuala Lumpur. *Proceedings.* Kuala Lumpur, Faculty of Education, University of Malaya, 1965. 130 p. (University of Malaya. Faculty of Education. Bulletin v.1, no. 1)

A Seminar for heads of primary schools, representing Sekolah Kebangsaan, Chinese schools, Tamil schools and English schools.

Ce séminaire sur l'actualité pédagogique et la nouvelle orientation des programmes a été organisé à l'intention de directeurs de toutes les catégories d'écoles primaires (Sekolah Kebangsaan et écoles chinoises, anglaises et tamoules) que l'on trouve en Malaisie.

NEPAL

86. Kirtipur College of Education. *Primary school teacher training - Science: teacher's guidebook: part I: biology.* Kirtipur, 1970. 114 p.
87. Nepal. Ministry of Education. Education Department. *Primary school curriculum, Grade I-V.* Kathmandu, Planning, Statistics and Research Division, The Ministry, 1968. 101 p.

The needs of Nepalese children and the realities and ideals of Nepalese culture have been taken into account in the development of the curriculum. The objectives of primary education and the general goals of each curriculum area are specified. The basic concepts in each curriculum area have been organized into meaningful units. Suggested activities and materials for use by teachers and pupils are provided with each unit.

On a tenu le plus grand compte, pour la mise au point de ce programme, des besoins des enfants népalais ainsi que de la culture nationale, de ses idéaux et de ses réalités. L'ouvrage précise les objectifs de l'enseignement primaire et les buts généraux des divers secteurs du programme scolaire. Pour chacun de ces secteurs, on a structuré les notions essentielles en ensembles signifiants, et indiqué les activités et le matériel recommandés aux maîtres et aux élèves.

PAKISTAN

88. Pakistan. Bureau of Curriculum and Extension Wing, Sind. *Curriculum series I-IX.* Hyderabad [1973?] 9 v. mimeo. (multicopié).

Recognition is given to primary education as the foundation of a country's educational system and as such the practical utility of the curriculum is to be examined. The first volume of this series is devoted to a general discussion of the curriculum and the objectives of elementary education. Series II-VII are reports of the Subject Committees for Urdu, Mathematics, Elementary Science and Social Studies.

Il est reconnu que l'enseignement primaire est la base de tout système d'éducation; c'est dans cette optique qu'il convient d'examiner l'utilité pratique du programme primaire. Le premier volume de cette collection est une étude générale de ce programme et des objectifs du premier degré. Les volumes II à VII sont les rapports des comités chargés d'établir les programmes d'urdu, de mathématiques, de sciences et d'études sociales.

EDUCATIONAL FACILITIES: BUILDINGS, EQUIPMENT, TEACHING AIDS, TEXTBOOKS / EQUIPEMENT SCOLAIRE: LOCAUX, MATERIEL, AUXILIAIRES PEDAGOGIQUES, MANUELS

Buildings / Locaux

89. Asian Regional Institute for School Building Research.
School building design in Asia. Colombo, 1972. 304 p.

This book is not only written for designers of educational facilities. Chapters dealing with subjects such as: The educational background, The cost of school building, Accommodation schedules and space utilization and so on, will be of interest to educational administrators, principals of schools, subject teachers and teachers in primary schools, in short, to all those who are concerned with the quality of education, the quality of teaching spaces and the optimum use of funds available. At the end of each chapter is a list of useful references including the many studies and other publications put out by the Institute, a number of which deal on specific aspects of primary school building design.

Cet ouvrage est loin de s'adresser uniquement aux responsables de l'infrastructure et de l'équipement scolaires: les chapitres consacrés au contexte de l'enseignement, au coût des bâtiments scolaires, aux barêmes d'occupation des locaux, à l'utilisation de l'espace bâti, etc. intéresseront aussi les administrateurs scolaires, les directeurs d'établissements, les professeurs et les instituteurs primaires, en un mot tous ceux qui ont à se préoccuper de la qualité de l'éducation, de celle de l'enseignement et de la meilleure utilisation des crédits disponibles. A la fin de chaque chapitre figure une bibliographie, qui indique les nombreuses études et autres publications de l'Institut, dont certaines ont trait à des aspects particuliers de la conception et de la construction des écoles primaires.

90. "Kato Gaknen Primary School /Japan/ new education method and unique school building", photographs by Nobuaki Fukin, *Japan Illustrated* II(2):2-8, Spring 1973.

91. *Plan and estimate for primary school building under /Bangladesh's/ Third Five Year Plan.* Dacca, Design Centre, Education Directorate, 1969. 11 p.

Equipment / Equipement

92. Regional Seminar on School Science Equipment, New Delhi, 11-20 December 1972. *Final report /of the Seminar/ convened by Unesco in co-operation with the Government of India and UNICEF.* Bangkok, Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia, 1973. 65 p.

Science curriculum experts, and specialists in the designing and manufacturing of science education equipment at the primary and lower secondary levels, met to exchange knowledge and experience. Problems of design, prototype manufacturing, mass production, marketing and distribution of science equipment, and the training of teachers and laboratory technicians in the use of modern equipment, were the major concern of the Seminar.

Ce séminaire a rassemblé des experts en matière d'enseignement des sciences et des spécialistes de la conception et de la fabrication de matériel d'enseignement scientifique pour le premier degré et le premier cycle secondaire. Les principales questions étudiées ont été les suivantes: la conception des appareils, la fabrication de prototypes, la production en série, la commercialisation et la distribution, ainsi que les moyens d'initier les enseignants et les préparateurs à l'utilisation du matériel moderne.

93. Japan. Unesco National Commission. *Standard teaching materials and equipment for elementary and secondary schools in Japan.* Tokyo, 1971. 155 p.

Lists types of materials and equipment for each subject area and states the numbers and sizes required for each grade level. Teaching materials for special education are also mentioned. Laws and regulations concerning teaching materials and equipment are given.

On trouve dans ce livre la liste du matériel et de l'équipement officiellement requis pour chaque matière dans l'enseignement du premier et du second degrés (y compris les établissements d'éducation spéciale), ainsi que le texte des lois et règlements pertinents.

Teaching Aids / Auxiliaires pédagogiques

94. Anwar, Slamet. *A study of the uses of audio-visual aids in the Elementary Laboratory School of the University of the Philippines, submitted to the Eighth Institute for Key Teacher Educators, 6 July-5 October 1972.* Quezon City, Asian Institute for Teacher Educators, 1972.

The study shows that there is good use of audio-visual materials, because the teachers are well trained in their preparation and utilization of the materials.

L'auteur montre que les auxiliaires audio-visuels sont bien utilisés à l'école primaire d'application de l'Université des Philippines parce que les instituteurs ont été convenablement préparés à cet effet.

Textbooks / Manuels

95. India. National Council of Educational Research and Training. *Survey of school textbooks in India, 1969-70.* New Delhi, 1971. 247 p.

Lists types of materials and equipment for each subject area and states the numbers and sizes required for each grade level. Teaching materials for special education are also mentioned. Laws and regulations concerning teaching materials and equipment are given.

On trouve dans ce livre la liste du matériel et de l'équipement officiellement requis pour chaque matière dans l'enseignement du premier et du second degrés (y compris les établissements d'éducation spéciale), ainsi que le texte des lois et règlements pertinents.

96. McCullough, Constance M. *Preparation of textbooks in the mother tongue: a guide for those who write and those who evaluate textbooks in any language.* New Delhi, Department of Curriculum, Methods and Textbooks, 1965. 126 p.
97. Science Education Center. University of the Philippines. *Newsletter.* Quezon City, Irregular. (irrégulier).

Curriculum materials developed for elementary and secondary schools, experimental workshops organized for teachers and other activities and programmes of the Center are reported.

Ce bulletin donne des informations sur les éléments de programmes préparés pour l'enseignement du premier et du second degrés, les stages pratiques organisés à l'intention du personnel enseignant, et les activités et programmes du Centre d'enseignement des sciences de l'Université des Philippines.

98. Thailand. Ministry of Education. Elementary Education Division. *Survey of textbook shortage for primary school students.* Bangkok, October 1971. 23 p. mimeo. In Thai. (multicopié, en thai).

The study showed that about 36% of the children surveyed in Grades I-VII either had no textbooks or an incomplete set of the textbooks required. Comparisons of figures by province showed that for one province the shortage of textbooks was as high as 70%, and the lowest was 10%.

Cette enquête a montré que 36% des élèves interrogés (classes de I^{e} à VII^{e}) n'avaient aucun des manuels scolaires requis, ou qu'il leur en manquait plusieurs. Les chiffres relevés indiquent que ce pourcentage varie, suivant les provinces, de 10% à 70%.

EDUCATIONAL FINANCE / FINANCEMENT DE L'EDUCATION

99. Regional Technical Assistance Seminar on Investment in Education in the Countries Participating in the Karachi Plan, Bangkok, 7-15 April 1964. *Investment in education: report of the Seminar, and country studies by experts.* Bangkok, Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia, 1967. 466 p.

At the meeting a number of recommendations were adopted concerning the expenditure on education, and it was agreed that highest priority and support should be given to achieving eight years of compulsory education for all school-age children by 1980.

A l'issue de cette réunion, diverses recommandations ont été adoptées au sujet du financement de l'éducation. Il a été souligné que l'essentiel des efforts devait viser à réaliser pour 1980 la scolarisation obligatoire, pendant huit années, de tous les enfants d'âge scolaire.

100. Farmer, Frank. *Project to improve school finance practices in Thailand, report prepared for the Division of Rural Elementary Education, Department of Local Administration, Ministry of Interior.* Bangkok /USOM/AID/ 1972. 3 v.
101. Hallak, Jacques. *The effects of population growth on the cost of primary education: a simulation case study of Ceylon.* Paris, Unesco/International Institute for Educational Planning, 1970. 49 p. (IIEP/RP/6/C.3A (Rev. 1).
102. ______; M. Cheikhestani and H. Varlet. *The financial aspects of first-level education in Iran.* Paris, Unesco/International Institute for Educational Planning, 1972. 58 p. (IIEP Financing educational systems: specific case studies 1).

This study is devoted to the comparative analysis of the financing and unit cost of three types of first-level schools in Iran, namely, ordinary public schools, Education Corps schools and private schools. Countries with a low enrolment ratio and a large rural population, which have difficulties in financing educational development and in finding school teachers, an experiment similar to that of the Iran Education Corp may be worth trying.

Cette étude est une analyse comparée du financement et des coûts unitaires des trois types d'écoles primaires que l'on trouve en Iran, à savoir les écoles publiques ordinaires, les écoles de l'Armée du Savoir et les écoles privées. Les pays ayant une forte population rurale et un taux de scolarisation encore faible, et qui éprouvent des difficultés à financer le développement de l'enseignement et à recruter des maîtres, auraient peut-être avantage à tenter une expérience du genre de l'Armée du Savoir iranienne.

PROBLEMS: EDUCATIONAL WASTAGE / PROBLEMES: DEPERDITION SCOLAIRE

103. Advisory Group on Out-of-School Children and School Drop-Outs, Bangkok, 17-18 February 1966. *Report.* Bangkok, Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia, 1966. 23 p.

The discussions concentrated on children in the 6-15 age-group with inadequate schooling. Statistics showed that the highest drop-out rate occurs in the first three grades and predominantly in the rural areas. Causes of school drop-out were traced to economic, social and educational factors. Remedial measures were suggested for reducing the rate of wastage.

Les membres de ce groupe se sont consacrés à l'étude des problèmes de non scolarisation et d'abandon scolaire au sein de la population âgée de 6 à 15 ans. Les statistiques montrent que les abandons sont surtout fréquents pendant les trois premières années d'études, et dans les régions rurales. Les causes de ce phénomène sont d'ordre économique, social, et aussi scolaire. Les participants ont suggéré diverses mesures propres à en réduire l'incidence.

104. Technical Seminar on Educational Wastage and School Dropouts, Bangkok, 5-12 September 1966. *Final report of the Seminar, convened by Unesco.* Bangkok, Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia, 1966. 44, xi p.
105. Stage d'études sur la déperdition scolaire et les abandons en cours d'études (organisé par l'Unesco en collaboration avec le Gouvernement thailandais), Bangkok, 5-12 septembre 1966. *Rapport final.* Bangkok, Bureau régional de l'Unesco pour l'éducation en Asie, 1967. 43 p.

The incidence and magnitude of educational wastage at the first level of education was reviewed. Statistics showed that in a number of Asian countries out of a 100 pupils in Grade I, less than 50 reach Grade IV and only about 40 complete primary education. The financial loss is immense and a minimum estimate is that wastage, in the form of drop-outs and repetition, is costing the Asian countries about $100,000,000 a year. For individual countries the cost varies between 2% and 27% of their education budgets. The discussions disclosed a need for studies which would both clarify the reasons for educational wastage and evaluate the effectiveness of remedial measures.

L'incidence et l'ampleur de la déperdition scolaire dans le premier degré ont été examinées. D'après les statistiques relatives à un certain nombre de pays d'Asie, sur 100 enfants entrant en Ière année, moins de 50 parviennent en IVe et 40 seulement terminent leurs études primaires. La perte financière est énorme: les redoublements et les abandons en cours d'études doivent coûter à ces pays, au minimum, l'équivalent de 100 millions de dollars par an, et ce gaspillage représente de 2% à 27% de leur budget de l'éducation. Les débats ont fait apparaître la nécessité d'élucider les causes précises de la déperdition scolaire et d'évaluer l'efficacité des remèdes proposés.

106. Abe, Munemutsu. "Wastage in primary education in Asia", *Research Bulletin of the National Institute for Educational Research* (11):51-55, March 1972.
107. "[Asia] Antecedents and consequences of early school learning", *Educational Documentation and Information, Bulletin of the International Bureau of Education Year* 46(182):69-75, 108-110, 1st quarter 1972.
108. "[Asia] Les causes et les conséquences des abandons en cours d'études", *Documentation et information pédagogiques, Bulletin du Bureau international d'éducation Année* 46(182):79-86, 122-124, 1er trimestre 1972.
109. "The problem of educational wastage", *Bulletin of the Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia* I(2) March 1967.
110. "Le problème de la déperdition des effectifs scolaires", *Bulletin du Bureau régional de l'Unesco pour l'éducation en Asie* I(2) mars 1967.

A review of the situation of educational wastage (dropping-out and grade repetition) in the Asian region. Summaries of country reports and studies are presented.

Etude générale de la déperdition scolaire (abandons et redoublements de classe) en Asie. Rapports nationaux et analyses du phénomène.

INDIA / INDE

111. Gupta, S.L. *The ungraded school system: a draft blue print for teachers.* New Delhi, Department of Pre-primary and Primary

Education, National Institute of Education, 1970. 29 p. (NCERT Series in reducing education wastage).

In spite of considerable efforts, India has not been able within the last two decades to achieve the target of universal and free primary education for the age-group 6-14, and the total volume of school drop-outs and repeaters is increasing every year. This blue print of an ungraded school system has been worked out as a possible remedial measure for curbing educational wastage.

En dépit des efforts considérables déployés depuis vingt ans, l'Inde n'a pas réussi à assurer un enseignement primaire gratuit et obligatoire à tous les enfants âgés de 6 à 14 ans, et le nombre total des élèves qui abandonnent leurs études ou redoublent une classe augmente chaque année. L'auteur a élaboré ce plan d'une école non divisée en classes comme moyen possible de réduire la déperdition scolaire.

112. Hironaka, Kazuhiko. "Development and wastage in primary education in India", *Research Bulletin of the National Institute for Educational Research* (11):77-87, March 1972.

Traces the problem of educational wastage to pre-independence days. Reports of Education Commissions and Education Plans are reviewed showing how India is finding solutions to reduce educational wastage.

L'auteur étudie le problème de la déperdition scolaire depuis l'époque antérieure à l'Indépendance. Il analyse les rapports des Commissions de l'éducation successives ainsi que les Plans de développement de l'enseignement afin de montrer comment l'Inde cherche à résoudre ce problème.

113. India. University of Delhi. Agricultural Economics Research Centre. *Primary education in rural India: participation and wastage.* Bombay-New Delhi, Tata McGraw-Hill /c1971/ 86 p.

This study indicates that educational backwardness is largely a symptom of economic backwardness, and suggests that policies for improving rural elementary education must be directed toward attacking poverty.

Cette étude montre que le retard en matière d'éducation est dans une large mesure un symptôme de retard économique, et soutient que toute politique qui veut améliorer l'enseignement primaire rural doit s'attaquer d'abord aux causes de la pauvreté.

114. ______. National Council of Educational Research and Training. Department of Educational Administration. *Wastage and stagnation in primary and middle schools in India: project report.* (NIE-HEW Project no. 005). New Delhi, 1967. 263 p. mimeo. (multicopié).

The main object of the study was to identify the causes of wastage and to determine the relative importance of each cause. A subsidiary aim was to ascertain the incidence of wastage and stagnation. The findings of the study suggested certain measures which would call for improvements in current educational policies and practices.

L'objet principal de cette étude était d'identifier les causes de la déperdition scolaire et de classer par ordre d'importance; le deuxième était de déterminer l'incidence de cette déperdition et de la stagnation des élèves. Les conclusions ont permis de proposer certains mesures qui demanderont la rectification des politiques et pratiques actuelles en matière d'éducation.

115. Singh, Agga Jit. "Some problems facing village primary schools", *Education* II(5):21-25, May 1972.

INDIA / INDE (continued / suite)

116. Unesco. Office of Statistics. "India", in *A statistical study of wastage at school, a study prepared for the International Bureau of Education.* Paris, Unesco/Geneva, IBE, 1972. p. 103-115.

A study of enrolment and repeaters for the first level of education in India (composed of five grades in the primary stage and three grades in a middle stage). The magnitude of drop-out in the first grade at the primary level and repetition in the first three grades appear to be the major problems of this stage. The middle stage seems to tend toward a comparatively modest level of repetition and drop-out.

Ce chapitre étudie, par rapport aux effectifs inscrits, l'importance des redoublements dans l'enseignement du premier degré indien (qui comprend 5 années d'école primaire et 3 années d'école moyenne). Les principaux problèmes sont constitués par les nombreux abandons en première année et les redoublements pendant les trois premières années primaires; à l'école moyenne, il semble que les abandons et redoublements tendent à se situer à un niveau relativement modeste.

JAPAN / JAPON

117. Koizumi, Kihei and Akiro Amano. "The process of eradicating wastage in primary education; Japan's experience", *Research Bulletin of the National Institute for Educational Research* (8):1-24, April 1967.

NEPAL

118. Lall Singh. *Educational wastage in Nepal, a paper based on survey conducted at Kathmandu, Bhaktapur and Kavre.* Kathmandu, National Education Committee, 1973. 36 p.

The author states that simple cumulative wastage in Nepal amounts to 91.90% for primary education, 62.36% in middle schools and 51.14% in high schools. Reasons of wastage are analysed.

D'après l'auteur, la déperdition scolaire au Népal atteint les pourcentages suivants: 91,90% dans le premier degré, 62,36% dans les écoles moyennes et 51,14% dans le secondaire. Il analyse les causes de ce phénomène.

PAPUA AND NEW GUINEA / PAPUA ET NOUVELLE GUINEE

119. Wilson, Michael. *The primary school and development, a survey of primary standard 6 leavers.* Boroko, Educational Materials Centre, University of Papua and New Guinea /1972/ 26 p. mimeo. (multicopié).

THAILAND / THAILANDE

120. Arai, Ikuo. "Development and wastage in primary education in Thailand", *Research Bulletin of the National Institute for Educational Research* (11):67-75, March 1972.

Shortage of qualified teachers, inadequate supply of educational materials, and chronic absence are given as leading factors contributing to wastage in elementary education.

Les principaux facteurs de déperdition scolaire dans le premier degré en Thailande sont, d'après l'auteur, la pénurie d'instituteurs qualifiés, l'insuffisance des fournitures et du matériel d'enseignement et l'absentéisme.

121. Porter, Willis. "Is universal primary education possible?" *Journal of the National Education Council* 4(6):49-51, January 1970.

The article reveals that from 26% to 40% of Prathom I children are repeating, that a high percentage drop out of school before completing Prathom IV,

THAILAND / THAILANDE (continued / suite)

and that the Government was spending more than 6 million US dollars annually to educate Prathom I repeaters, and 10,000 teachers to teach these repeaters. Only through bold and imaginative programmes designed to provide better education for more students at less cost can the Government achieve its goal of universal education by 1980.

Cet article révèle que de 26% à 40% des élèves de I$^{\text{ère}}$ année primaire redoublent, que beaucoup abandonnent l'école avant la fin de la IV$^{\text{e}}$ année et que le Gouvernement dépense chaque année l'équivalent de plus de 6 millions de dollars - et utilise 10 000 instituteurs - pour instruire ces redoublants. L'enseignement universel ne pourra être réalisé en 1980, comme le Gouvernement s'y est engagé, qu'au prix de mesures hardies et originales propres à assurer une meilleure éducation à un nombre accru d'élèves et pour une dépense plus faible.

TEACHER TRAINING / FORMATION DES ENSEIGNANTS

ASIA / ASIE

122. Pires, E.A. *Primary teacher training in Asia.* Bangkok, Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia, 1963. 271 p. (Studies in Asian education, no. 1).
123. ______. *La formation des maîtres primaires en Asie.* Bangkok, Bureau régional de l'Unesco pour l'éducation en Asie, 1963. 283 p. (Etudes sur l'éducation en Asie, no. 1).

To provide information needed for preparing a programme for a regional centre for teacher training, a study of the status of teacher training was undertaken. Emphasis of the study was on courses of teacher training and on demand for and supply of primary teacher educators.

Cette étude a été effectuée en vue de fournir des éléments d'information indispensables à la préparation du programme d'un centre régional de formation d'enseignants. L'auteur s'est surtout attaché à analyser les cours de formation pédagogique ainsi que les besoins et les possibilités de formation de professeurs d'école normale.

124. Asian Institute for Teacher Educators, Quezon City. *Teacher education in Asia, a regional survey.* Bangkok, Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia, 1972. 275, xiv p.

Describes the status of teacher education for first and second levels of education in Asian Member States around 1970. The survey is limited to the training of primary and general secondary school teachers. The bibliography lists other publications of the Institute including those which concentrate on special aspects of teacher training for primary schools.

Cette enquête porte sur la formation des instituteurs et des professeurs d'enseignement général du second degré dans les Etats d'Asie membres de l'Unesco. La bibliographie signale les autres publications de l'Institut asien pour les professeurs d'enseignement normal, notamment celles qui portent sur des aspects particuliers de la formation des instituteurs primaires.

Curriculum / Programme primaire

125. Asian Institute for Teacher Educators, Quezon City. *The rationale of a common curriculum for the education of primary and secondary school teachers.* Quezon City [1969] [58] p. (CEAP/NPP/ibd) mimeo. (multicopié).

A presentation of a basic curriculum which would enable mobility of teachers from primary to secondary teaching and vice versa, eliminating repetition of courses which are almost identical and making teaching a profession without any strict compartmentalization.

Modèle d'un programme de base permettant la mobilité des enseignants du primaire vers le secondaire et vice versa, supprimant les doubles emplois de cours presque identiques et éliminant les cloisonnements étanchés au sein de la profession enseignante.

126. Asian Institute for Teacher Educators, Quezon City. *The teaching of the social studies in primary teacher training institutions in Asia*, by Edward A. Pires. Bangkok, Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia, 1970. 132 p.

This study showed that training institutions follow the traditional "distinct subjects" curriculum because primary schools lack teachers who can teach integrated courses. Clear and comprehensive objectives for teaching social studies have to be formulated. There is a great variation from country to country in the emphasis given to social studies and to the content. Teachers use a limited number of methods and materials in teaching their courses. There are also great variations from country to country in the minimum qualifications required of teachers of social studies.

L'auteur montre que les écoles normales appliquent elles-mêmes dans le domaine des études sociales un programme découpé en matières distinctes parce que les écoles primaires manquent d'instituteurs capables d'appliquer un programme "intégré". Il importe de formuler de façon claire et complète les objectifs des études sociales. Leur contenu et la place qu'on leur réserve sont très variables d'un pays à l'autre; les professeurs ont un répartoire très limité en matière de méthodes et de matériel pédagogique. La diversité est aussi très grande d'un pays à l'autre quant aux titres minimaux exigés des professeurs d'études sociales.

Student teaching / Stages pédagogiques

127. Asian Institute for Teacher Educators, Quezon City. *Student teaching practices in primary teacher training institutions in Asia* /prepared by/ Edward A. Pires. Bangkok, Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia /1967/ 148 p.
128. Institut asien pour les professeurs d'enseignement normal, Quezon City. *Modalités des stages pédagogiques dans les écoles normales primaires d'Asie* par Edward A. Pires. Bangkok, Bureau régional de l'Unesco pour l'éducation en Asie, 1971. 123 p.

The study showed that problems in student teaching are related to the following: co-operating schools and their teachers, laboratory schools, teacher training institutions and their staff, organization of the student teaching programme, supervision and evaluation of student teaching.

La pratique des stages pédagogiques pose, d'après cette étude, des problèmes touchant les questions suivantes: la collaboration des écoles primaires annexes et de leurs enseignants, le choix des écoles d'application, les écoles normales et leur programme, l'organisation des stages pédagogiques, leur contrôle et leur évaluation.

In-service training / Perfectionnement des maîtres en exercice

129. Asian Institute for Teacher Educators, Quezon City. *A study of the in-service training of primary school teachers in Asia*, prepared by Edward A. Pires. Bangkok, Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia, 1966. 97 p.
130. Institut asien pour les professeurs d'enseignement normal, Quezon City. *Etude sur le perfectionnement en cours d'emploi des maîtres primaires en Asie* par Edward A. Pires. Bangkok, Bureau régional de l'Unesco pour l'éducation en Asie, 1966. 97 p.

This study showed that the purposes and objectives of Asian countries in providing in-service training programmes for primary school teachers are not sufficiently wide to provide the latter with an all-round professional training.

L'auteur montre que les objectifs des stages et cours de perfectionnement des instituteurs primaires en fonctions dans les divers pays d'Asie ne sont pas assez largement conçus pour que ces enseignants reçoivent ainsi une formation pédagogique complète.

131. Regional Symposium on the In-Service Training of Primary School Teachers in Asia [organized by the Asian Institute for Teacher Educators with the co-operation of Unesco, Quezon City, 5 to 19 July 1967] *Final report.* Bangkok, Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia, 1967. 98 p.
132. Colloque régional sur le perfectionnement en cours d'emploi des instituteurs en Asie [organisé par l'Institut asien pour les professuers de l'enseignement normal, avec le concours de l'Unesco, Quezon City, 5-19 juillet 1967]. *Rapport final.* Bangkok, Bureau régional de l'Unesco pour l'éducation en Asie, 1968. 104 p.

In-service training programmes in the Asian region were reviewed, and a basic statement of principles for the organization and conduct of in-service training programmes was formulated. Areas where further research is needed were identified, and suggestions made for developing research designs for such studies.

Après avoir examiné les programmes de perfectionnement en cours d'emploi, l'auteur énonce les principes fondamentaux à suivre pour organiser et appliquer de tels programmes. Il indique les questions dont l'étude plus approfondie est nécessaire, et le plan des recherches à entreprendre à ce sujet.

133. Reid, Owen W. "A review of in-service training programmes for elementary school teachers in Asia", *Educational Exchange Features* (2):1-15, February 1968.

A review of teacher training programmes in eight Asian countries.

Analyse des programmes de perfectionnement des maîtres en exercice appliqués dans huit pays d'Asie.

134. *INNOTECH Newsletter.* Singapore, SEAMEO Regional Center for Educational Innovation and Technology, 1972-. Monthly. (Mensuel).

Among the on-going activities of INNOTECH reported in the *Newsletter* are the training programme for key educators designed to help identify educational problems, conduct research, develop prototype solutions and evaluation techniques, and train for leadership in disseminating innovations.

Ce Bulletin de l'INNOTECH (Centre régional pour l'innovation et la technologie éducatives, relevant de la SEAMEO, ou Organisation des ministres de L'éducation d'Asie du sud-est) donne des informations sur les diverses activités de ce Centre, et notamment sur les programmes de formation organisés à l'intention d'éducateurs occupant des postes éminents pour mettre ces derniers mieux à même d'identifier les problèmes éducation, de mener des recherches, d'élaborer des solutions types et des techniques d'évaluation, et d'animer vigoureusement la diffusion des innovations.

135. *RECSAM Newsletter.* Penang, SEAMEO Regional Center for Education in Science and Mathematics, 1968-.

The *Newsletter* covers the activities and programmes of RECSAM. The contents of courses offered to teachers coming for in-service training are reported in detail.

Ce Bulletin rend compte de l'activité du RECSAM (Centre régional de la SEAMEO pour l'enseignement des sciences et des mathématiques). On y indique en détail le contenu des cours donnés aux enseignants venus se recycler.

ASIA / ASIE (continued / suite)

136. *RELC Newsletter*. Singapore, SEAMEO Regional English Language Centre, 1970-. Quarterly (Trimestriel).

The *Newsletter* provides information about the programmes and activities of the SEAMEO Regional English Language Centre, especially in the areas of training research and instructional materials development. Individual projects are listed with synopsis.

Ce Bulletin rend compte des programmes et de l'activité du RELC (Centre régional de la SEAMEO pour l'enseignement de l'anglais), particulièrement en ce qui concerne la formation du personnel, la recherche et la mise au point du matériel d'enseignement. Chaque projet particulier fait l'objet d'une notice.

ADMINISTRATION

137. [Asian Institute for Teacher Educators, Quezon City]. *Principles of organization, administration and supervision for primary teacher educators in Asia*, by Edward A. Pires. Bangkok, Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia, 1965. 47 p. mimeo.

138. [Institut Asien pour les professeurs d'enseignement normal, Quezon City]. *Principes d'organisation, d'administration, et d'inspection pour les professeurs d'enseignement normal en Asie*, par Edward A. Pires. Bangkok, Bureau régional de l'Unesco pour l'éducation en Asie, 1967. 50 p. multicopié.

General principles are discussed in relation to the concept of democracy, prudent administration, and to change and progress.

L'auteur expose un certain nombre de principes généraux touchant la direction démocratique des systèmes d'enseignement, leur administration judicieuse, l'évolution et le progrès.

139. [Asian Institute for Teacher Educators, Quezon City]. *The recruitment and selection of candidates for primary teacher training in Asia*, by Edward A. Pires. Bangkok, Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia, 1968. 86 p.

As to problems of recruitment, the author says: "The most common difficulty is the poor economic status of primary school teachers which is responsible for a poor quality of applicants for primary teacher training. The absence of recruitment procedures to attract more promising youngsters to teaching in general and to primary school teaching in particular accentuates this problem. These two, therefore, constitute the major problems that the Asian countries need to tackle in order to upgrade the quality of entrants into the primary teacher training institutions".

Au sujet des problèmes de recrutement, l'auteur déclare: "La difficulté la plus courante provient du faible niveau de rémunération des instituteurs primaires, à cause duquel seuls les élèves médiocres demandent à entrer dans les écoles normales. L'absence de toute procédure officielle de nature à attirer de meilleurs éléments vers la profession enseignante en général, et l'enseignement primaire en particulier, accentue cette difficulté. Ce sont là les deux éléments du problème qui se pose dans les pays d'Asie; il faut leur apporter une solution si l'on veut améliorer la qualité des jeunes qui entrent dans les écoles normales primaires".

Research / Recherche

140. Working Group Meeting on Research and Development in Teacher Education, Baguio City, 11-20 January 1972. *Research and development in teacher education in Asia; final report* [of the Working Group Meeting convened by the Unesco Regional Office

for Education in Asia and the Asian Institute for Teacher Educators/. Quezon City, AITE, 1972. 96 p.

Research being basic to renovation of teacher education programmes, the application of research-development oriented approach to teacher education was studied; long-range and short-range programmes including projects for research and development were proposed.

La recherche étant essentielle à la rénovation des programmes de formation pédagogique, les membres de ce groupe de travail ont étudié l'application des principes de la recherche-développement à l'enseignement normal; ils ont proposé divers programmes à long terme et à court terme ainsi que plusieurs projets de R et D.

AFGHANISTAN

141. Afghanistan. Ministry of Education. Bureau of Planning. "Primary education and teacher training in Afghanistan", *Bulletin of the Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia* II(1):4-8, September 1967.
142. _____. Ministère de l'Education. Bureau de planification "Enseignement du premier degré et formation du personnel enseignant en Afghanistan", *Bulletin du Bureau regional de l'Unesco pour l'éducation en Asie* II(1):6-13, septembre 1967.

In trying to effect compulsory and universal primary education, the key sector is the training and supply of teachers. Steps taken during the Third Five-Year Plan (1967-1972) to meet the shortage of qualified teachers are described.

Dans toute campagne visant à généraliser l'enseignement obligatoire, le secteur déterminant est celui du recrutement et de la formation du personnel enseignant. L'article expose les mesures prévues au titre du Troisième Plan quinquennal (1967-1972) pour remédier à la pénurie d'enseignants qualifiés.

143. /Afghanistan/ Ministry of Education. Teacher Training Consultative Committee. *Syllabus for one-year course of training for primary school teachers in Afghanistan* /Kabul/ 1969. 42 p. mimeo. (multicopié).

The contents includes: the aims and objectives of teacher education; qualification of staff of primary teacher training collleges; duties of staff; syllabus for a one-year course of professional training for primary school teachers at the post-secondary level; programme for doing a study on a teaching problem; and practice teaching and examinations.

Cette brochure comprend les chapitres suivants: buts et objectifs de l'enseignement normal; titres exigés des professeurs des écoles normales primaires; obligations du personnel enseignant; programme d'un cours d'un an de formation professionnelle, du niveau post-secondaire, pour instituteurs primaires; programme d'une étude d'un problème d'enseignement; stage pédagogique; examens.

144. Kushaki, P.M. *A study of the balance between academic and professional education, and in professional education between theory and practice in the preparation of primary school teachers in Afghanistan, submitted to the Sixth Institute for Key Teacher Educators, 13 August-25 November 1970.* Quezon City, Asian Institute for Teacher Educators, 1970. 34 p. typescript.

The study points out that: (1) the percentage of time in total training of an elementary teacher spent on professional training is considerably low; (2) the curriculum in high schools for training teachers needs to be brought up-to-date; and (3) the courses are not child-centered.

L'auteur montre: (1) que le temps consacré, dans les écoles normales primaires, à la formation professionnelle des futurs instituteurs est trop faible; (2) que le programme doit être modernisé; (3) que cet enseignement n'est pas centré sur l'enfant.

145. Munsif, Mohammad Mohsin. *An analysis of the pre-service primary teacher education programme in Afghanistan and recommendations for its improvement* ... [thesis-M.Ed.] Quezon City, College of Education, University of the Philippines, 1972. 182 p. mimeo. (multicopié).

The study points to the need for making the post-secondary one-year professional course into a two-year course to offer a broad cultural foundation for future teachers. Emphasis on the integration approach and inquiry approach are recommended.

L'auteur de cette thèse montre que le cours d'un an de formation professionnelle du niveau post-secondaire devrait être porté à deux ans afin de donner aux futurs instituteurs une bonne culture générale. Il préconise l'emploi de l'approche intégrée et de la méthode des enquêtes.

146. Amin, Aminullah. *In-service education program of elementary school teachers in the Philippines and its implication for Afghanistan* [thesis-M.Ed.] Diliman, Quezon City, College of Education, University of the Philippines, 1970. 133 p. mimeo. (multicopié).

After a study of the in-service education programmes in the Philippines, the author suggests that authorities in Afghanistan should plan such programmes with a view to refreshing the teachers' knowledge and up-dating professional ability rather than to helping them up-grade their position.

Après avoir étudié les programmes philippins de perfectionnement des enseignants en exercice, l'auteur suggère que les autorités afghanes élaborent de tels programmes qui viseraient à actualiser les connaissances des instituteurs et à accroître leur compétence professionnelle plutôt qu'à les aider à obtenir de l'avancement.

147. Lawrence, H.S.S. *Suggestions for practical activities in the one-year professional course of teacher training* [Kabul, Unesco National Programme of Educational Training] 1972. 45 p. mimeo. (multicopié).

A resource book for teacher educators to train student teachers to perform specific tasks, develop initiative and individuality, and follow the inquiry and problem-solving methods.

Ouvrage riche en suggestions pour les professeurs d'école normale: comment enseigner aux élèves-maîtres à exécuter certaines tâches déterminées, comment développer leur esprit d'initiative et leur individualité, et comment appliquer des méthodes actives.

INDIA / INDE

148. India. National Council of Educational Research and Training. National Institute of Education. Department of Teacher Education. *National survey of elementary teacher education* [ed. by] C. Mehra. New Delhi, 1970. 181 p.

With the extension of primary education in all the States and Union Territories, the number of teacher training institutions increased but the qualitative improvement was overlooked by educational planners and administrators. The survey covers seven aspects of teacher education: student body, staff, instructional programme, building and equipment, finance, inspection and supervision, and plan for development and suggestions for practical ways and means for improvement are suggested.

Avec la généralisation de l'enseignement primaire dans tous les Etats et Territoires de l'Union, les écoles normales se sont multipliées mais les planificateurs et administrateurs de l'éducation ont négligé l'amélioration qualitative du personnel enseignant. Cette enquête nationale a porté sur sept aspects de l'enseignement normal: les élèves-maîtres, le personnel enseignant, les programmes, les locaux et leur equipement, les problèmes financiers, l'inspection, et un plan de développement. Des suggestions concrètes sont faites quant aux améliorations possibles et aux moyens nécessaires pour les réaliser.

149. India. National Council of Educational Research and Training. *Elementary teacher education.* New Delhi [c1970] 279 p.

A syllabus for training institutions for elementary teachers covering the objectives of teacher education and bases of curriculum construction. Programmes for the post-middle, post-secondary and graduate candidates are included.

Cet ouvrage propose un plan d'études pour la formation des instituteurs primaires. Il traite des objectifs de l'enseignement normal et de la structure de base d'un programme scolaire, et prévoit trois niveaux correspondant respectivement aux élèves-maîtres qui n'ont fait que leur premier cycle secondaire, à ceux qui ont leur diplôme de fin d'études secondaires et à ceux qui possèdent déjà un premier grade universitaire.

150. Chilana, Mulkh Raj. *Improving primary teacher education in India.* New Delhi, Department of Field Services, National Institute of Education [1967?] 76, iii p.

Problems presented in reports of different Committees, Seminars and Commissions concerned with education in India were carefully reviewed and suggestions for improvement were gathered from a comparative study of current practices of primary teacher training programmes in different Asian countries.

L'auteur passe attentivement en revue les problèmes exposés dans les rapports d'un certain nombre de séminaires, de comités et de commissions qui ont examiné l'enseignement indien; il propose un certain nombre d'améliorations inspirées par une étude comparative des programmes de formation d'instituteurs primaires actuellement appliqués dans différents pays d'Asie.

151. India. National Council of Educational Research and Training. National Institute of Education. Department of Teacher Education. *Primary teacher education curriculum: developed in a National Workshop of Primary Teacher Educators organized in New Delhi, 22-28 February 1969.* New Delhi [c1970] 90 p. (P.T.E.C. Series, no. 1)

A syllabus covering twelve courses.

Ce programme de formation d'instituteurs primaires comprend une douzaine de cours.

152. Salkar, C.R. *A plan for an accelerated training programme for untrained primary teachers in the territory of Goa (India), submitted to the Seventh Institute for Key Teacher Educators, 4 March to 28 May 1971.* Quezon City, Asian Institute for Teacher Educators, 1971. iv, 402 p. typescript.

A study of the steps taken by various countries to find a satisfactory solution to the problem of untrained primary school teachers and to find out how far the measures taken by them may be adopted by the Territory of Goa.

Etude des mesures prises par divers pays pour résoudre de façon satisfaisante le problème posé par la présence de nombreux instituteurs primaires non qualifiés; ces mesures peuvent-elles être adoptées dans le Territoire de Goa?

INDIA / INDE (continued / suite)

153. Hariharan, S. *A study of the balance between academic and professional education, and in professional education between theory and practice, in the preparation of primary school teachers in India; submitted to the Fifth Institute for Key Teacher Educators, 8 January-22 April 1970.* Quezon City, Asian Institute for Teacher Educators, 1970. 49 p. typescript.

From the study it appears that the theory part of professional education is greater than what is regarded as necessary for the development of competent teaching. To translate theory into practice, student teachers should be given laboratory practice not only in laboratory schools but in ordinary primary schools.

D'après l'auteur de cette étude, la partie théorique du programme de formation pédagogique, dans les écoles normales indiennes, est excessive par rapport à ce que les futurs instituteurs doivent savoir pour bien enseigner. D'autre part, pour traduire dans la pratique les notions théoriques qu'ils ont apprises, les élèves-maîtres devraient pouvoir faire des stages non seulement dans les écoles d'application annexées aux écoles normales, mais dans des écoles primaires ordinaires.

154. Chilana, Mulkh Raj. *A study of the organization of in-service education programmes for elementary school teachers in the Philippines and its implications for India.* Quezon City, Asian Institute for Teacher Educators, 1967. 135 p.

The working procedures of in-service education programmes for primary teachers are studied carefully. The suggestions of the study re-enforce the Indian Education Commission's recommendations that there should be a large-scale, systematic and co-ordinated programme of in-service education calculated to involve a maximum number of teachers.

L'auteur étudie attentivement la façon dont fonctionnent les programmes de perfectionnement des instituteurs en exercice. Les suggestions qu'il présente viennent à l'appui des recommandations de la Commission sur l'éducation selon lesquelles l'Inde devrait instituer un vaste programme, méthodique et bien coordonné, de formation en cours d'emploi capable de toucher le plus grand nombre possible de maîtres.

155. Choksi, Mahendra. *Similarities and differences between the program of the University Elementary School, U.P. and the Baroda University Experimental School, India and the implications that may be derived from them* [thesis-M.Ed.] Quezon City, College of Education, University of the Philippines. 1972. 140 p. [typescript]

A comparative study of two laboratory schools, one in the Philippines and another in India. Ideas gathered from the Philippine school and recommended for the school in India include: a decrease of teachers' workload to 30 periods per week, the organization of a Parent-Teachers Association, the adoption of innovative techniques by the teachers, the improvement of qualifications of the staff, and staff interchanges between the laboratory school and the training institution.

Cette thèse est une étude comparative de deux écoles d'application, l'une philippine et l'autre indienne. Les idées recueillies dans la première et que l'auteur recommande d'adopter en Inde sont les suivantes: ramener à 30 heures au maximum par semaine la charge de travail des enseignants; organiser une association de parents d'élèves; faire adopter aux enseignants des méthodes pédagogiques renovées; améliorer leur niveau de qualifications; organiser des échanges entre les instituteurs des écoles d'application et les professeurs des écoles normales.

INDIA / INDIE (continued / suite)

156. Jadeja, Y.D. "Primary school teachers, a study", *ICSSR (Indian Council of Social Science Research) Research Abstracts Quarterly* I(3):7-31, April 1972.

A study of the socio-economic background of teachers; their educational background, status, professional problems, views on aims of education and their role in social change.

Cette étude porte sur la condition socio-économique des instituteurs, leur niveau d'instruction, leur statut social, leurs problèmes d'ordre professionnel, leurs opinions touchant les buts de l'éducation et le rôle qu'ils jouent dans l'évolution sociale.

INDONESIA / INDONESIE

157. Popoi, Noer. *A study of the balance between academic and professional education, and in professional education between theory and practice, in the preparation of primary teachers in Indonesia; submitted to the Sixth Institute for Key Teacher Educators, 13 August-25 November 1970.* Quezon City, Asian Institute for Teacher Educators, 1970. 52 p. typescript.

The study shows that more emphasis is placed on academic courses than on professional courses, and that 86.4% is given to theory in professional education as against 13.6% only to practice.

L'auteur constate que les écoles normales indonésiennes accordent trop de place aux cours de culture générale par rapport à la formation professionnelle des instituteurs et que, dans le cadre de cette dernière, les cours de théorie occupent 86,4% du temps et la pratique de l'enseignement 13,6% seulement.

158. Rifai, Mas Moh. *Programmes of in-service teacher education for elementary teachers in Quezon City [a study] submitted to the Eighth Institute for Key Teacher Educators, 6 July-5 October 1972.* Quezon City, Asian Institute for Teacher Educators, 1972. 52 p. typescript.

Some of the implications of the study for Indonesia are: educational research should be conducted widely; in-service training programmes should be made interesting and attractive; the concept of supervision should be changed from that of inspection to assistance in the development of better teaching.

Les conclusions de l'auteur intéressant l'Indonesie sont notamment les suivantes: la recherche pédagogique devrait être largement développée; les programmes de perfectionnement des instituteurs en service devraient être plus interessants et plus attrayants; il conviendrait que les inspecteurs ne soient plus de simples contrôleurs, mais qu'ils aident vraiment les maîtres à améliorer leur enseignement.

159. Kolit, D.K. *A study of the difficulties experienced by primary school teachers in Indonesia.* Ende (Flores), Nusa Indah, 1972. 39 p.

Apart from a review of the general and special problems experienced by teachers, the study suggests and discusses possible solutions to their problems.

L'auteur de cette brochure étudie les problèmes, tant généraux que particuliers, que connaissent les instituteurs primaires indonésiens, puis suggère des solutions.

160. Parchami, Rahmatollah. *A study of the existing curriculum in primary teacher training institutions in Iran and recommendations for its improvement, submitted to the Sixth Institute*

for Key Teacher Educators, 13 August-25 November 1970.
Quezon City, Asian Institute for Teacher Educators, 1970.
40 p. typescript.

Amongst the recommendations are the following: the existing curriculum should be up-dated, professional courses should be balanced with general education courses, concentration courses should be in consonance with needs of communities, research and evaluation should not be ignored, new methods and techniques should be introduced, and co-curricular activities and social studies should be given more emphasis.

En vue d'une amélioration du programme des écoles normales iraniennes, l'auteur présente diverses recommandations: il conviendrait de moderniser ce programme, d'équilibrer les cours de culture générale et ceux de formation professionnelle proprement dite, de déterminer les matières principales en fonction des besoins de la communauté, de ne plus négliger la recherche et l'évaluation; il faudrait aussi adopter des méthodes et des techniques pédagogiques modernes, et accorder plus d'importance aux activités extra-scolaires et aux études sociales.

161. Marashi, Sied Ali Akbar. *The in-service training program for primary school teachers in Khuzistan, Iran [thesis-M.Ed.]*
Quezon City, College of Education, University of the Philippines, 1970. 124 p. mimeo. (multicopié)

The main proposals are: teachers should be motivated to gain personal and professional growth; continuous review and revision of curriculum should be made, based on new concepts and research; the Department of Education needs to have an in-service training division led by experts, specialists and authorities in the field and a supervisory function; the in-service programme should offer professional training besides purely academic courses, and should use a variety of teaching methods, materials and evaluation techniques.

Les principales propositions de l'auteur sont les suivantes: il importe de motiver les enseignants afin qu'ils s'efforcent de se cultiver et d'accroître leur compétence professionnelle; il conviendrait de soumettre le programme de perfectionnement des instituteurs en exercice à une révision continue, basée sur les conceptions modernes et appuyée par les recherches appropriées; le Département de l'éducation devrait comprendre une Division de la formation des maîtres, animée par des experts et des spécialistes en la matière, et assurant aussi l'inspection; le programme de perfectionnement devrait comporter des activités de formation professionnelle à côté des cours strictement théoriques; enfin, il devrait faire appel à diverses méthodes pédagogiques et utiliser des matériaux appropriés et les techniques d'évaluation.

162. Ronquen, Pedro; Iran Ehteshami and Mahmoud Darvish. *A practice teaching manual.* Tehran, Unesco Mission, Ministry of Science and Higher Education, 1970. 112 p.

Although intended for student teachers, this manual may be useful to teachers in service, for those responsible for planning and supervising student teaching and those who have reached the stage of "teaching to learn". The annex includes a table of the primary school curriculum, Grades I-VI, and examples of lesson plans for Grades II and IV.

Ecrit à l'intention des élèves-maîtres, ce manuel peut aussi rendre des services aux enseignants en exercice, aux professeurs chargés d'organiser et de diriger les stages pédagogiques et à toute personne appelée à "enseigner à apprendre". L'annexe comprend un tableau représentant le programme primaire (classes de Ier à VIe) et des exemples de plans de leçons pour les classes de IIe et de IVe.

KOREA, Republic of / COREE, République de

163. Lee, Bong Hi. *Strategy for implementation of manpower planning in elementary teacher education in the Republic of Korea [thesis-M.Ed.]* Quezon City, College of Education, University of the Philippines, 1971. 205 p. mimeo. (multicopié)

The proposed strategy calls for: (1) improvement of the social status of teachers through an incentive system; (2) technical implementation of the planning itself; and (3) development of manpower planning in elementary teacher training institutions.

La stratégie suggérée par l'auteur comprend des propositions qui tendent: (1) à améliorer la condition sociale des instituteurs grâce à un système de mesures d'encouragement; (2) à faciliter sur le plan technique l'exécution du Plan; (3) à appliquer à l'intérieur des écoles normales la planification relative à la main-d'oeuvre.

LAOS

164. Tehn Teso. *A study of the balance between academic and professional education, and in professional education between theory and practice in the preparation of the primary school teachers in Laos, submitted to the Fifth Institute for Key Teacher Educators, 8 January-22 April 1970.* Quezon City, Asian Institute for Teacher Educators, 1970. 33 p. typescript.

Having noted several shortcomings in the programme for teacher education, the study indicates that the following aspects should be taken into consideration in developing the curriculum: national aspirations, practical objectives of teacher training, balance between general academic education and vocational training, and balance between theory and practice.

Après avoir constaté plusieurs défauts dans le programme de formation du personnel enseignant au Laos, l'auteur signale qu'il importe, dans l'élaboration d'un nouveau programme, de tenir compte des aspects ci-après: les aspirations de la population, les objectifs pratiques de la formation des enseignants, l'équilibre entre les cours de culture générale et les cours proprement professionnels et l'équilibre entre la théorie et la pratique pédagogiques.

MALAYSIA / MALAISIE

165. Lee Soo. *Composite proposals for the improvement of the organization, administration and supervision of the primary teacher training system in Malaya (Malaysia).* Quezon City, Asian Institute for Teacher Educators, 1965. 71 p. typescript.

This study shows a need for the following measures: reviewing the administrative staff; improving facilities - housing, libraries, audio-visual materials and equipment - to enable the students to do optimum studies; integrating the courses; setting up sound procedures for selecting students; conducting research to determine adequacy of the courses offered; and offering courses to up-grade both lecturers and administrators.

Cette étude montre la nécessité de prendre les mesures suivantes: réorganiser le personnel administratif; améliorer l'équipement des écoles normales (locaux, bibliothèques, auxiliaires audio-visuels et équipement) pour permettre aux élèves-maîtres de travailler dans d'excellentes conditions; intégrer les cours; sélectionner judicieusement les candidats; évaluer l'efficacité des enseignements dispensés; instituer des cours de perfectionnement tant pour les professeurs que pour les administrateurs.

166. Lee, Chee-Ying. *A study of the balance between academic and professional education, and in professional education between theory and practice in the preparation of primary school*

teachers in Malaysia, submitted to the Sixth Institute for Key Teacher Educators, 13 August-25 November 1970. Quezon City, Asian Institute for Teacher Educators, 1970. 99 p. typescript.

The study showed that the time allocated to academic subjects in the primary teacher training curriculum (44.1% of the course time) appears to be sufficient; however, the time allotment for theory and practice needs to be equally divided with 50% to the study of educational theory and 50% devoted to teaching practice. Malaysia being a multi-racial country, student teachers must study two or three languages; therefore the two-year programme should be lengthened by a third year in order to include subjects such as guidance and counselling, audio-visual education and other useful courses.

Le temps alloué aux matières de culture générale dans le programme des écoles normales malaises (44,1%) semble insuffisant; quant aux cours de pédagogie, ils devraient être également répartis entre l'étude théorique et l'entraînement à l'enseignement. La Malaisie étant un pays ethniquement composite, les élèves-maîtres doivent étudier deux ou trois langues; pour cette raison, la durée du programme devrait être portée de deux ans à trois afin qu'une place suffisante soit faite à des matières importantes telles que l'orientation scolaire et l'enseignement audio-visuel.

NEPAL

167. Pradhananga, Gajendra B. *A study in the development of curriculum for primary teacher education in Nepal [thesis-M.Ed.]* Quezon City, College of Education, University of the Philippines, 1971. 164 p. mimeo. (multicopié).

The present National Education Plan for Nepal which aims at providing all children with three years of primary education by 1980 necessitates a reorganization of the present primary teacher training programme so that the necessary numbers of quality teachers can be produced. The author recommends relevant measures to meet that need.

Le Plan de développement de l'éducation nationale prévoit que tous les enfants devront recevoir au moins trois ans d'enseignement primaire en 1980. Pour atteindre cet objectif, il faudrait réorganiser le système actuel de formation d'instituteurs afin de mettre à la disposition du pays un nombre suffisant de maîtres de qualité. L'auteur propose les mesures à prendre à cet effet.

168. College of Education. Primary School Teacher Training Division, Kirtipur. *Primary teacher training, curriculum guide.* Kirtipur, 1971. 258 p.

Curriculum guides are provided for three areas of teacher education: Psychological foundations of education, Pedagogical foundations of education and School system. There are also curriculum guides for the teaching of nine subjects in the primary schools.

Cet ouvrage contient les programmes relatifs à trois grands chapitres de l'enseignement normal: les bases psychologiques de l'éducation, ses fondements pédagogiques, et le système scolaire. On y trouve aussi les programmes correspondant aux neuf matières enseignées dans les écoles primaires.

169. Poudyal, Bala Ram. *A study of the balance between academic and professional education, and in professional education between theory and practice in the preparation of primary school teachers of Nepal: submitted to the Fifth Institute for Key Teacher Educators, 8 January-22 April 1970.* Quezon City, Asian Institute for Teacher Educators, 1970. 27 p. typescript.

In both the 7-year and the 9-year programmes there is a need to provide more time for professional education courses as well as for teaching practice which at the present time covers less than 20% of the teacher education programme.

Science teaching needs to be given more weight in the curriculum and provision should be made for the study of Sanskrit and Newari.

Dans les deux programmes de formation de personnel enseignant qui sont appliqués au Népal, il serait nécessaire de consacrer plus de temps aux cours de caractère professionnel et aux stages pédagogiques, qui ne representent actuellement que moins de 20% de la durée totale de ces programmes. De même, il faudrait insister davantage sur l'enseignement des sciences, et introduire des cours de sanscrit et de newari.

170. Lal Pradhan, Ratna. *A critical analysis of the relationships of national goals, educational aims and educational objectives of Primary School Teacher Training Centre programmes in Nepal* [*thesis-M.Ed.*] Quezon City, College of Education, University of the Philippines, 1972. 152 p. mimeo. (multicopié)

Primary educational objectives have undergone two revisions in 1954 and 1971. The 1971 revision has four primary educational objectives which emphasize economic development, social development and political stability. Suggestions are given by the author for harmonizing the objectives of the Primary School Teacher Training Centres with the national education objectives.

Les objectifs de l'enseignement du premier degré ont été deux fois modifiés: en 1954 et en 1971. La révision de 1971 met l'accent sur le développement économique et social et sur la stabilité politique. L'auteur propose divers moyens propres à harmoniser les objectifs des Centres de formation d'instituteurs primaires et ceux de l'éducation nationale.

171. Shrestha, Kedar Nath. "In-service training of primary school teachers in Nepal", *Shiksha* I(3):81-90, August 1967.

The efforts made to train some 70% of untrained teachers at an accelerated speed within the first ten years of Nepal's teacher training programme are described. Future plans and incentives for teachers to participate in in-service training programmes are also explained.

L'auteur décrit les efforts déployés pour assurer très rapidement, en une dizaine d'années, la formation de 70% environ des enseignants non qualifiés du pays. Il expose aussi les plans établis pour l'avenir et les mesures prévues pour inciter les enseignants à participer aux programmes de formation pédagogique.

PHILIPPINES

172. Ma Kou Chih, Francis. *A comparative study of the curricula for elementary teacher education in the Philippine Normal College and the Teachers' Training College, Singapore* [*thesis-M.Ed.*] Quezon City, College of Education, University of the Philippines, 1970. 195, 4 p. mimeo. (multicopié)

The study showed that the two institutions differed in the duration of their training programmes and in many aspects of curriculum offerings. The strengths and weaknesses of each institution, as revealed by the study, give a clearer direction for future teacher education programmes.

L'auteur montre que les deux institutions examinées (l'Ecole normale des Philippines et le Collège pédagogique de Singapour) diffèrent non seulement par la durée des études, mais encore par de nombreux aspects de leurs programmes respectifs. Il souligne les points forts et les faiblesses de chaque établissement, ce qui peut contribuer à mieux orienter à l'avenir les programmes de formation pédagogique.

173. Tolibas, Petra Y. *A study of the balance between academic and professional education and in professional education between theory and practice in the preparation of primary school teachers in the Philippines, submitted to the Fifth Institute for Key Teacher Educators, 8 January-22 April 1970.* Quezon City, Asian Institute for Teacher Educators, 1970. 59 p. typescript.

The study showed the need to equalize the number of units between academic and professional education and to provide intimate relationship between theory and practice so that methods and principles are never dissociated from practical experience. Courses should be selected carefully and integrated in the total programme and each course should be oriented to the development of an effective teaching personality.

L'auteur montre la nécessité de consacrer un nombre égal de leçons à l'enseignement de culture générale et à l'enseignement professionnel, et de relier étroitement la pratique de la pédagogie à sa théorie afin que la connaissance des méthodes et des principes ne soit jamais dissociée de l'expérience concrète. Les cours doivent être choisis très soigneusement et intégrés à la totalité du programme; chacun doit tendre à développer chez les élèves-maîtres toutes les qualités qui font un enseignant efficace.

174. Amin Aminullah. *In-service education program of elementary school teachers in the Philippines and its implication for Afghanistan* [*thesis-M.Ed.*] Quezon City, College of Education, University of the Philippines, 1970. mimeo. (multicopié)

After a study of the in-service education programmes in the Philippines, the author suggests that authorities in Afghanistan should plan such programmes with a view to refreshing the teachers' knowledge and up-dating professional ability rather than to helping them up-grade their position.

Après avoir étudié les programmes philippins de perfectionnement des enseignants en exercice, l'auteur suggère que les autorités afghanes élaborent de tels programmes qui viseraient à actualiser les connaissances des instituteurs et à accroître leur compétence professionnelle plutôt qu'à les aider à obtenir de l'avancement.

175. Juele, Lilia V. *The role of public primary teacher education institutions in the in-service training programme in the Philippines.* Quezon City, Asian Institute for Teacher Educators, University of the Philippines, 1967. 120 p.

Teacher education institutions are encouraged to get more involved in the upgrading of in-service teachers and to develop suitable in-service training programmes.

Les établissements de formation pédagogique sont encouragés à faire de plus grands efforts pour le perfectionnement des enseignants en exercice et à appliquer des programmes appropriés.

176. Bomblay, Govind Manohar. *Opinions of elementary_school_teachers in Valenzuela on in-service education:* [*a study*] *submitted to the Fifth Institute for Key Teacher Educators, 8 January-22 April 1970.* Quezon City, Asian Institute for Teacher Educators, 1970. 42, 5 p. typescript.

Significant points voiced were: (1) Teachers being consumers of in-service courses, they should be consulted when these programmes are being planned, and (2) Incentives should be provided for encouraging teachers to attend in-service training programmes.

Parmi les opinions les plus importantes exprimées par les instituteurs interrogés, on mentionnera les deux suivantes: (1) étant "consommateurs" de cours de perfectionnement, les enseignants devraient toujours être consultés lorsqu'on prépare de tels programmes; (2) les autorités devraient prévoir un système de récompenses destiné à encourager les enseignants à suivre des cours de perfectionnement.

PHILIPPINES (continued / suite)

177. Rifai, Mas Moh. *Programmes of in-service teacher education for elementary teachers in Quezon City: [a study] submitted to the Eighth Institute for Key Teacher Educators, 6 July-5 October 1972.* Quezon City, Asian Institute for Teacher Educators, 1972. 52 p. typescript.

Some of the implications of the study of programmes in the Philippines for Indonesia are: educational research should be conducted widely; in-service training programmes should be made interesting and attractive; the concept of supervision should be changed from that of inspection to assisting in the development of better teaching.

Les conclusions de l'auteur intéressant l'Indonésie sont notamment les suivantes: la recherche pédagogique devrait être largement développée; les programmes de perfectionnement des instituteurs en service devraient être plus intéressants et plus attrayants; il conviendrait que les inspecteurs ne soient plus de simples contrôleurs, mais qu'ils aident vraiment les maîtres à améliorer leur enseignement.

SINGAPORE / SINGAPOUR

178. Ma Kou Chih, Francis. *A comparative study of the curricula for elementary teacher education in the Philippine Normal College and the Teachers' Training College, Singapore [thesis-M.Ed.]* Quezon City, College of Education, University of the Philippines, 1970. 195, 4 p. mimeo. (multicopié).

The study showed that the two institutions differed in the duration of their training programmes and in many aspects of curriculum offerings. The strengths and weaknesses of each institution, as revealed by the study, give a clearer direction for future teacher education programmes.

L'auteur montre que les deux institutions examinées (l'Ecole normale des Philippines et le Collège pédagogique de Singapour) diffèrent non seulement par la durée des études, mais encore par de nombreux aspects de leurs programmes respectifs. Il souligne les points forts et les faiblesses de chaque établissement, ce qui peut contribuer à mieux orienter à l'avenir les programmes de formation pédagogique.

179. Nair, A.P. *A study of the balance between academic and professional education, and in professional education between theory and practice in the preparation of primary school teachers in Singapore, submitted to the Fifth Institute for Key Teacher Educators, 8 January-22 April 1970.* Quezon City, Asian Institute for Teacher Educators, 1970. 43 p. typescript.

To attain a balance in the curriculum, the author recommends the offering of courses of an academic nature under "Electives" or "Principal subjects" for the purpose of widening the general education of the student. Arrangements should also be made to attach students to a school for at least half a day each week so that they may observe classroom teaching.

En vue d'équilibrer la structure des programmes de formation pédagogique, l'auteur recommande que l'on y introduise davantage de cours de culture générale à titre d'options on de matières principales; il suggère aussi que les élèves-maîtres passent au moins une demi-journée chaque semaine dans une école primaire pour y observer la pratique de l'enseignement.

180. Tham Tuck Onn and Ho Wah Kam, ed. *The integrated curriculum in teacher education, proceedings of the Seminar sponsored by Unesco and organized by the Teacher's Training College, Singapore, 16 November 1970.* [Singapore, Teachers Training College, 1970.] 31 p.

The discussions pointed out that for an integrated curriculum to be usefully examined, it was necessary to examine the objectives of the curriculum and the educational system. It was suggested that in-service courses should not duplicate work done in the initial courses; rather they should focus attention on problem-solving.

Au cours de ce séminaire, les participants ont souligné que pour mettre au point des programmes "intégrés" de formation pédagogique, il était nécessaire de partir d'une étude des objectifs du programme scolaire et du système d'éducation. Ils ont estimé que les cours de perfectionnement des maîtres en exercice, au lieu de répéter ceux qui sont donnés aux élèves-maîtres pendant leur formation initiale, devraient être conçus essentiellement pour développer l'aptitude des instituteurs à résoudre les problèmes qu'ils rencontrent dans leur classe.

SRI LANKA

181. Fernando, E. Newton. *A study of the instructional courses in the professional education of elementary teachers in Ceylon [thesis-M.Ed.]* Quezon City, College of Education, University of the Philippines, 155 p. mimeo. (multicopié).

The course contents are examined against the objectives, and suggestions are made to enrich the content areas that were found to be deficient and to delete whatever appeared to be superfluous and irrelevant.

L'auteur de cette thèse analyse le contenu des cours de formation pédagogique donnés aux futurs instituteurs en fonction des objectifs de cette formation; il indique les secteurs ou matières à renforcer et les éléments superflus à éliminer.

182. Nettananda, S.K. *Plan for upgrading the quality of elementary school teachers under training in Ceylon, submitted to the Seventh Institute for Key Teacher Educators, 4 March to 28 May 1971.* Quezon City, Asian Institute for Teacher Educators, 1971. 47 p. typescript.

Statistics are presented to show the large backlog of untrained teachers and the need for providing suitable in-service training with a graded programme of continuing education.

L'auteur présente des statistiques montrant qu'il existe encore à Ceylan un grand nombre de maîtres non qualifiés, et qu'il est nécessaire d'organiser sérieusement le perfectionnement du personnel en exercice au moyen d'un programme gradué d'éducation permanente.

183. Jayasekera, Jayasena. *A study of the programmes of in-service training of teacher educators as practised in some of the Asian countries [thesis-M.Ed.]* Quezon City, College of Education, University of the Philippines, 1967. 145 p. mimeo. (multicopié).

By studying in-service training programmes of some Asian countries, the author gathered ideas and information with probable implications for Sri Lanka. The study confirms that in-service training should be an on-going process that guarantees the continuous growth of teachers. The four most commonly listed objectives for in-service training specified by the countries surveyed are: (1) to gain new knowledge, (2) to refresh and update old knowledge, (3) to update the methodology of teacher training and primary teacher training, and (4) to develop new skills and attitudes conducive to better teaching.

Etudiant dans quelques pays d'Asie les programmes de perfectionnement des professeurs d'école normale, l'auteur relève un certain nombre d'idées et d'informations susceptibles de trouver des applications à Sri Lanka. Cette thèse confirme que ce perfectionnement doit être un effort permanent, propre à garantir l'amélioration continue du personnel enseignant. Les quatre objectifs le plus souvent indiqués dans les pays examinés sont les suivants: (1) enrichir les connaissances individuelles; (2) actualiser les connaissances acquises auparavant; (3) moderniser la méthodologie de l'enseignement normal, notamment dans les écoles normales primaires; (4) développer chez tous les enseignants les aptitudes et attitudes propices à une amélioration constante de l'enseignement.

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184. Chaweepong Rongson, M.L. *A study of facilities and resources provided for teacher education in the National Teachers College, submitted to the Fifth Institute for Key Teacher Educators, 8 January-22 April 1970.* Quezon City, Asian Institute for Teacher Educators, 1970. 20 p. typescript.

Ideas were gathered for improving the facilities and resources of a teacher training institution in Thailand.

Etudiant les ressources offertes à l'Ecole normale nationale des Philippines, l'auteur recueille des idées qui peuvent permettre d'améliorer l'équipement et les moyens d'un établissement similaire de Thailande.

185. Songsi Chutiwongse. *A study of the balance between academic and professional education, and in professional education between theory and practice in the preparation of primary school teachers in Thailand, submitted to the Seventh Institute for Key Teacher Educators, 4 March-28 May 1971.* Quezon City, Asian Institute for Teacher Educators, 1971. 43 p. typescript.

The study showed that the time allocated for academic and professional courses in teacher training institutions is in keeping with the recommendations of the Regional Meeting on Curriculum Development in Teacher Education in Asia held in 1969 in the Philippines. The curriculum, however, needs to include courses on rural community studies and services. Suggestions are given for developing a single integrated curriculum.

L'auteur montre que le temps consacré aux cours de culture générale et aux cours de caractère professionnel dans les écoles normales de Thailande est conforme aux recommandations de la Réunion regionale sur les programmes de formation pédagogique en Asie, tenue en 1969 aux Philippines. Néanmoins, il conviendrait d'inclure dans ce programme l'étude des communautés rurales, et des cours sur les services en milieu rural.

Bibliographies

186. Espejo, Ma. Cristina Y., comp. *Primary teacher training in Asia: a selected bibliography.* Quezon City, Asian Institute for Teacher Educators, [1967?] 24 p.

187. Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia. *Documents on teacher training and in-service training in Asia, representing documents in the library of the Regional Office.* Bangkok, 1972. xvi p.

A bibliography which covers teacher training for the different levels of education. Many of the tables include teacher training for the first level of education and supplement the sources listed above. Available upon request from the Unesco Regional Office for Education in Asia, P.O. Box 1425, Bangkok, Thailand.

Cette bibliographie indique des ouvrages qui ont trait à la formation du personnel enseignant pour les divers degrés. Bon nombre d'entre eux portent sur la formation des instituteurs primaires, et complètent donc la présente liste. Pour la recevoir, s'adresser au Bureau régional de l'Unesco pour l'éducation en Asie, P.O. Box 1425, Bangkok, Thailande.

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